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REGIONAL REVIEW AND APPRAISAL OF THE NAIROBI FORWARD-LOOKING STRATEGIES ON EQUALITY, DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE

Report by the secretariat

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Introduction

1. The objective of the Review and Appraisal of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies on Equality, Development and Peace is to carry out an assessment of progress made and obstacles encountered in the implementation of such strategies, as well as to highlight the new priorities for action for the advancement of women in the countries concerned.

2. The present report, which is an attempt to carry out this objective, is based on the 13 national reports of ECE member States which were available at the time of its preparation (see list of reporting countries in Annex). This report cannot therefore be considered exhaustive in presenting the major trends in terms of the advancement of women in the region. However, it confirms the findings of the substantive documentation prepared by the secretariat. Furthermore, the High-level Regional Preparatory Meeting will offer an opportunity to extend and complete this presentation through the interventions which will be made by national delegations in this respect.

3. For the present report, the available material has been organized in three major groups in order to highlight both convergencies and differentiations among the countries covered by the document. Section I reviews the major changes in the economic situation of women since the adoption of the 1985 Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies (NFLS) under two sub-headings, namely (a) rates of participation, employment and unemployment, and (b) conditions of work and equality of remuneration. Section II describes progress made and results achieved in three areas; (a) enhancing the human resource potential of women, (b) reconciling work with family responsibilities and (c) implementation of international conventions and standards. Section III, "Some future policy proposals", delineates proposals which are being considered by Governments to improve the status of women in the future. Finally, Section IV, "Some Conclusions", makes some preliminary observations which may support the deliberations during the Meeting.

I. REVIEW OF THE MAJOR CHANGES IN THE ECONOMIC SITUATION OF WOMEN

4. As mentioned before, the changes highlighted in the national reports received so far illustrate the trends analysed in the substantive documentation prepared for the Meeting. 1/ Most of the reporting countries show a deterioration in the economic environment which has led to a sharp rise in levels of unemployment whilst the quality of unemployment has also deteriorated. In several of the reporting countries, about 50% of all unemployed have been out of work for 12 months or more. Also, in contrast to the early 1980s, unemployment is being increasingly concentrated amongst prime age group (22 to 44 years) workers. Although female workers in this prime age have been absorbed in the services sector, it is frequently as involuntary part-time workers. It appears that about half of the service sector employees are women in most countries, the highest concentration being in health services, office and clerical jobs, banks and information services.

1/ See: Reports by the secretariat on Trends in Women's Role in the Economy (E/ECE/RW/HLM/2), Women's Access to Employment and Entrepreneurship (E/ECE/RW/HLM/4) and the Role of Women in the transition processes (E/ECE/RW/HLM/5).

5. The percentage of labour force, particularly its female component outside the unemployment register, may have increased. This may be inferred from the information on the increasing number of women undergoing public training schemes, those who have accepted early retirement and/or who have withdrawn from the labour market after long periods of seeking work.

6. At the same time the allocation of public resources to social expenditures has deteriorated. The pressure on the budget in some countries has led to cutting down of public expenditures, particularly in health and education, which has adversely influenced the well-being of women and the family.

(a) Rates of participation, employment and unemployment

7. The relative deterioration in the economic environment since the late 1970s has left a sharp imprint on the conditions under which women contribute to the economic life of the ECE region. During the earlier decade, from 1970 to 1980, the economic conditions for the advancement of women had generally improved. This was reflected particularly in the increase in the rates of women's participation in the labour force of almost all countries of the region. During that period, the share of women in the labour force had increased as a result of rapid growth and sustained structural change. There was a substantial shift in the structural composition of the economy which brought about significant changes in women's integration into the labour market. Rapidly expanding social facilities and services created a positive framework for the reduction of economic inequalities, particularly affecting women.

8. The mid-1980s, in contrast, began with adverse implications for women's labour force participation by narrowing their choices of occupation in the organized sectors of most economies and leading to higher rates of unemployment in some countries. Economic restructuring primarily affected the male occupations in the organized sector of several economies. It thereby added rigidities in the existing occupational segregation of the labour market.

9. The reports review these trends within the framework of a decline in population growth and an increase in the number of women in the greying population of over 65 years. The percentage of women pensioners is higher than that of men, as reported by Bulgaria and Norway. There appears to be a direct correlation between lower rates of fertility and higher rates of participation in the labour force of some countries, such as France and Bulgaria.

10. According to recent data provided by several national reports, it appears that women's position in the labour force has not fundamentally changed in terms of occupational segregation. The increasing number of women in the economically active population is accompanied by a parallel rise in part-time employment in the service sector of most countries. The statistical distinction between women employees who are married/co-habiting or in the category of single mothers is now becoming less relevant although most countries continue to tabulate statistics employing traditional categories. In most countries of the region, women did not withdraw from the labour force irrespective of their marital status and number of children, even when their jobs were precarious and tenuous. As the share of female headed families

steadily increased, more and more women were seeking full-time paid work, but ending up in only part-time jobs of varying hours of work. The increase in part-time jobs in the region has been a contributory factor to increased occupational segregation and continued inequality in economic rewards, salaries and benefits.

11. From the evidence presented in the reports, it seems that the number employed in traditionally female occupations has increased. Only in two countries, Sweden and Norway, was there a slight increase in the female share of male dominated occupations following affirmative action by Governments. The concentration of women in certain sectors of the economy continues to be significant. For example, in France, among 31 occupational categories, the six most "feminized", where 60% of women are employed, relate to public service, administrative and commercial enterprises, domestic workers, teachers and assistant social workers. The twelve occupations with the highest percentage of women are described in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Concentration of women's employment
in specific sectors in France, 1990

The 12 occupations with the highest percentage of women		
Occupation	Percentage of women	Total (thousands)
Mother's helps, childminders and family workers	99.66	261
Nursery nurses	99.90	13
Midwives	99.56	11
Manicurists, salaries beauticians	99.26	12
Senior secretarial staff, executives' secretaries (non-management)	98.59	117
Domestic employees, charwomen	98.16	178
Secretaries	97.64	719
Unpaid family helpers or administrative or commercial staff working in cottage industries	96.14	116
Social assistants	95.64	37
Cashiers	94.69	131
Switchboard and telephone operators	93.52	37
Receptionists and information clerks	92.96	37

Source: INSEE, population census of 1990

12. The above trends are supported by evidence from other reporting countries. For example, the share of economically active women rose in Sweden from 77% in 1980 to 85% in 1990, but the fall in economic growth in the early

1990s lead to a decline in the share of economically active women to 81% in 1993. The report of this country shows an increase in working hours of women in the 1980s. Women had increasingly opted for full-time jobs and many of them had raised their hours from "short part-time" (maximum 19 hours) to long part-time (20-34 hours) or to near full-time (35 hours or more). This was the result of the economic recession, when the employment of women took a downward turn. Earlier, in 1985, the unemployment rate for women has been the same as that of men. Since 1990, more men than women in all age groups are employed. Women's employment rate is higher than that of men in only eight of Sweden's 24 counties.

13. In Denmark the occupational status of both men and women also changed between 1985 and 1991. In 1991, the labour force comprised of nearly three million persons of whom 46.6% were women. There too, the number of women with part-time employment increased, as a result of changes in the structure of output.

14. Throughout the 1980s and early 1990s, women were more seriously affected by unemployment than men, though the percentage difference was slight. For example, in the age groups of 20 to 24 years, 25 to 34 years and especially 55 to 59 years women formed the majority of the unemployed in Sweden and in Denmark. According to the national report of Finland: "The central social problem of the early 1990s is unemployment; working life being strictly divided according to gender, unemployment has affected women at different times and in different ways than men".

15. According to the national report submitted by Canada, "More women are employed, in more occupations and in more decision-making positions than ever before". The percentage of women in the labour force, however, has fallen somewhat in recent years as a result of the overall downturn in the economy. In 1993, 57.5% of women were in the labour force, compared to 58.4% in 1990. Between 1975 and 1993, the total number of women in the labour force rose by 71%, that is from 3.7 to 6.3 million. As a result by 1993 58% of all women aged 15 and over were either employed or looking for work, as compared to 44% in 1975. They experience increasing difficulties in finding new jobs, remain unemployed longer and more frequently, become discouraged workers and leave the labour force because they believe there is no work available to them. The figures for racial minority women and aboriginal women showed that there is a differential impact of discrimination on their access to employment. For example, in 1990 the unemployment rate for aboriginal women was 21.6% compared to 10.8% for all other Canadian women. Racial minority women represented 4.3% of the total workforce in 1991 compared to 2.9% in 1986. "Despite a slight increase of racial minority women in upper management occupations from 0.4% in 1986 to 0.5% in 1991, there has been a decrease in the professional category from 13.2% to 12.9% for the same period. The vast majority are concentrated in low-paying clerical and service jobs". (see Report, pp 44-45). This point is illustrated in Table 2.

16. The proportion of women in the workforce in the United Kingdom continued to increase. According to the report, "[it] is the second highest rate in the European Union ". About 47% of women employees work part-time, "the great majority because they wish to do so". Women are under-represented in science and technology and top jobs in business. A new trend is that a growing proportion of women are self-employed, including managers and administrators (Summary points of the Report, p.2).

Table 2

Distribution of employment by occupation,
1981 and 1993 in Canada

	1981			1993		
	% of women	% of men	Women as % of employment	% of women	% of men	Women as % of employment
Managerial/ administrative	5.4	9.9	27.4	12.6	14.3	42.2
Natural sciences	1.4	5.2	15.6	1.5	5.8	18.0
Social sciences/ religion	1.8	1.6	42.6	3.1	2.0	56.2
Teaching	5.8	3.0	56.7	7.0	3.0	65.8
Doctors/dentists	0.3(1)	0.8(1)	18.3(1)	0.4	0.8x	xx
Nursing/therapy/other health related	8.9(1)	1.1(1)	85.1(1)	9.3	1.1	xx.x
Artistic Literary/ recreational	1.4	1.4	39.5	2.0	2.1	44.4
Clerical	34.3	6.4	78.4	27.7	5.7	80.2
Sales	10.1	10.4	39.5	9.7	9.9	45.1
Service	18.3	10.1	55.0	17.2	10.9	56.8
Primary	2.9	8.4	18.9	2.4	6.9	22.4
Manufacturing	7.3	20.5	19.4	4.6	17.2	18.2
Construction	0.2	10.0	1.4	0.2	9.2	2.2
Transport equipment operating	0.6	5.9	6.1	0.7	5.9	8.9
Material handling/ other crafts	1.8	5.2	18.9	1.5	4.7	21.0
Total	100.0	100.0	40.4	100.0	100.0	45.4
Total (000s)	4,445	6,556	...	5,630	6,753	...

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220 and 71-529, and the Labour Force Survey

17. In France, seeking paid work outside the home is also becoming the general norm, adding 150,000 women to the labour force annually since 1982, according to INSEE. Women now constitute 44% of the economically active population. There too the increase in the number of women working outside the home has been linked to the decline in industrial employment, which was earlier considered to be the male domain. The technological advances making physical work lighter and the emergence of new technical occupations without gender bias have been additional factors.

18. In Portugal, women's participation in the labour market has also increased rapidly since the 1980s. In 1980, 1985 and 1993, this increase was recorded as 38.7% to 40.8% to 44.8% respectively, but the unemployment rate of women was higher - 6.6% compared to that of men which was 4.7% (Summary of the

national report, p.4). And yet, Portugal has registered one of the lowest rates of part-time work.

19. The summary highlights of the national report of the Russian Federation indicates that between 1980 to 1993, the share of women in the total employment decreased from 51 to 49.2%. In 1993, the total number of women employed was 35 million, 80% of whom were in the "reproductive age group". In Bulgaria 48.7% of women were employed in the state sector in 1992 and 48.2% in 1993, while the percentage in the private sector was 40.5 and 41 respectively. According to the national report of Bulgaria, there was a steady fall in 1992 and 1993 in the number of women employed. "In spite of the high unemployment rate, women still constitute almost half of the persons employed in state and cooperative enterprises according to the National Employment Office" (Report, p.15). (See Table 3)

Table 3

Persons employed in State and Cooperative Enterprises
in Bulgaria, 1992-1993
(in millions)

Branch	1992		1993	
	Total	Women	Total	Women
TOTAL	2.50	1.30	2.12	1.10
Industry	0.96	0.46	0.84	0.39
Construction	0.16	0.03	0.12	0.03
Agriculture	0.30	0.13	0.16	0.63
Forestry	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
Transport	0.10	0.04	0.15	0.35
Communication	0.04	0.28	0.04	0.28
Trade, material and technical supplying, & purchase by other branches	0.16	0.11	0.13	0.86

Source: National Employment Office

20. The unemployment situation has become extremely difficult in Bulgaria, due to the sharp decline in production and the relatively small part played by the private sector. According to recent data (December 1993) the number of registered unemployed was on the rise. More than half the total unemployed of 626,141 were women, the majority in industry and agriculture. Similarly, in Lithuania, although comprehensive statistics on employment and unemployment have not been provided, the total number of single-parent families consisting of mother and children are reported to have increased since 1989. In 1994, the percentage of women unemployed in urban areas was 3.5% as compared to 3.1% for men. But these statistics do not take into account "those workers who are forced to take prolonged unpaid holidays or to work part-time due to the

lack of raw materials". In 12 regions of the Russian Federation, 90% of all unemployed were women in 1993. The highlights of the report of the Russian Federation suggest that the average time of registered unemployment is 4.6 months for women and less than 2 months for men.

(b) Conditions of work and equality of remuneration

21. The last decade witnessed a greater need for additional earnings by women for the maintenance of the family. At the same time, women's access to equal opportunities in employment in order to earn an adequate income showed a downward trend. Furthermore, several national reports suggest that wherever there was higher unemployment among women, families witnessed a serious decline in their standard of living. The differential impact of unemployment of men and women may be also surmised from the increase in female headed households, reported in almost all countries of the region. When men are unemployed, there is a pressure for international migration which, in turn, imposes excessive hardships on women left behind with the principal responsibility for the family's survival.

22. Yet the myth that men should be the providers of the family continues. For example, a survey in France showed that the majority of the population believed men to be the main providers. Official statistics, however, indicate that the number of women seeking work or willing to work increased from 29% in 1978 to 49% in 1988.

23. As noted earlier, women form a relatively small part of the workforce in manufacturing in the ECE region. The majority of women workers are employed in services. This has implications on the income earning capacity of women as compared to mens. The pay differential between women and men is generally wider among non-manual workers than manual workers, although the reports do not classify pay differentials on this basis. The information provided by several countries disputes the earlier notion that the male/female earning gap was due to the higher qualifications of the average male. The national report from Sweden sums up this problem: "The existing gap in pay levels which can be seen in the major groups can be partly explained by the fact that women and men work in different occupations, in different sectors of employment, at different levels and on different work schedules. Many women work part-time, which also explains why women earn less. However, there are pay differences which cannot be explained. Research indicates, for example, that even if women and men have comparable education, men still get better average pay than women". (Report, pp.49-50). An analysis of average salaries of employees in various sectors by level of education in 1992 in that country supported this point - the higher the level of education, the larger the pay differential between women and men.

24. The national report of Finland gives additional information on this point: "Education alone does not bring women an equal status in working life. In spite of their good education and high motivation, women's career development is slower and their wage level remains lower than men's". In recent years, both trade unions and employers' organizations have proposed re-evaluation of jobs as a central means for narrowing down pay differentials (Report, p.8).

25. Women's wage levels and wage trends from 1980 to 1992 analysed in the report of Norway show that their average wage income amounts to half that of

men. A comparison of men and women with full-time jobs, however, narrowed this gap; women's wages amounted on average to approximately 80% of men's wages. Again, this gap is not explained by differences in educational qualifications. Table 4 below indicates that income trends measured in terms of mean gross personal income have been more favourable for women than for men but it has to be made clearer. However, for all sources of income, the situation at the outset was less favourable for women than for men.

Table 4

Income trends for men and women by source of income:
1982, 1985, 1990 and 1991
(index for fixed prices 1982 = 100)

	Women				Men			
	1982	1985	1990	1991	1982	1985	1990	1991
Gross income	100	108	128	134	100	101	108	108
Wage income	100	103	120	128	100	101	103	103
Pension	100	114	136	138	100	124	144	155
Self-employment	100	119	157	158	100	81	86	84
Capital income	100	141	193	196	100	118	180	187

Source: Income and Wealth Surveys, Statistics Norway

26. In the Netherlands, the principle of equality is enshrined in the Policy Plan of 1985, which guaranteed equality in employment and remuneration. However, women's increased participation in the labcur market, mainly in part-time and precarious occupations, continues to create inequalities in income-earning opportunities. "The legal position and career perspectives of part-timers are not on a par with full-time workers". (Summary of the Netherlands Report, p.4.).

27. The national report of France relates the paradox of unequal pay to the specific situation of women in the labour market and to their role in the family and the private sphere which exposes them to poverty and at the same time protects them from being socially excluded.

28. The pay differentials between women and men also persist in the Russian Federation and Bulgaria, despite the fact that the principle of equality of remuneration has been promoted by special policy measures. In practice, it has been found that women were in professions which were earlier considered to be "prestigious" such as medicine, teaching and dentistry. But when the number of women increased in these professions, it began to have an adverse impact on the relative level of their salaries. In the Russian Federation, in spite of women's higher level of education and professional training, they continue to be in the lower grades of the manufacturing sector. On average, the salary of women was about one-third less than that of men in 1992.

II. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NAIROBI FORWARD-LOOKING STRATEGIES (NFLS)

(a) Enhancing the Human Resource Potential of Women

29. A number of issues have been raised by the reporting countries in this area which is a basic component of the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies, mainly related to the finding that educational qualifications continue to have an insignificant effect on occupational segregation by sex. Women appear to be in different streams of educational attainment and fields of specialization, and have not yet emerged in larger numbers in scientific and technical fields. The effects of positive action programmes and other specific policy measures to channel women into traditionally male dominated occupations have not yet become statistically visible except in countries such as Sweden, Norway and Canada.

30. In most countries of the ECE region, women have not crossed the heavily guarded bridge from equality of education to equality in economic life. According to recent information, educational parity has been attained by women in several countries but this achievement has not been translated into equal opportunities in the labour market. The report from Finland underlines that, while education has improved women's status both in working life and in social activities, women's career development is slower and wage levels remain lower than men's.

31. Since the 1980s, about 52% of all students in Denmark were women which has improved their educational levels compared to men. During the period 1982 to 1992, there were also a number of reforms in vocational education which have channelled women away from so-called "women's occupations", such as social and health training. From 1987 to 1982, the percentage of women Ph.D. students increased from 23 to 33%.

32. In Sweden, equality within university and higher educational institutions was made a legal requirement by the 1992 Higher Education Act. A ten point programme was established in 1993 with the main aim of increasing the proportion of women in post-graduate studies. It was found that boys chose subjects such as engineering and natural sciences while girls chose languages and nursing. This had happened despite the fact that home economics, technology and textile handicrafts are compulsory for both sexes. Even when teachers and school administrators took active measures to promote equal opportunities, children were influenced by the social environment at home and the way they were socially treated as boys and girls.

33. In Canada, women's participation in traditionally male dominated professions has increased: in 1993, women accounted for 27% of all doctors, dentists and other health professionals, up from 18% in 1982. There was also a sharp increase in the proportion of women employed in management and administrative positions. In 1993, 40% of those working in one of these categories were women, up from 27% in 1981. "However, it should be noted that as much as 40% of this increase may actually be attributable to changes in occupational definitions." (Report, p.44).

34. In France, there has been a general upgrading of the level of education of girls, who have been reaching higher levels of achievement in diplomas and degrees. In 1982, only 25% of those in the category of non-manual occupations were women; in 1990, their number increased to 31%. Similarly, in the United

Kingdom, girls are currently out-performing boys in science subjects in examinations in age groups 16 to 18. The position of women in further and higher education has generally continued to improve, with women accounting for more than half the enrolment in further education courses. In Portugal, the percentage of women's participation in higher education has shown only a slight change since 1980, but here too they have achieved equality in numbers. The statistics as provided by the national report were: in secondary eduction 53.2% (1980), 53.1% (1985) and 52.7% (1991); while in higher education the percentages for 1980, 1985 and 1991 were 43.9%, 49.7% and 55.5% respectively.

35. From the statistical information provided by the Government of Bulgaria it appears that women and men have also achieved parity at all levels of education. For example, women make up 50.4% of the total number of students in secondary schools and 47.6% in technical secondary schools. They account for 55.6% of the total number of economically active persons with academic education. On 31 December 1991, women made up 28.6% of the total number of scientists, 30.43% of professors and 5.26% with doctorates. Among social scientists, women constituted 51.88%. In Kazakhstan, 68.6% of women have completed their secondary school education, while 11.6% obtain university diplomas.

(b) Reconciling work with family responsibilities

36. Combining work outside the home and continuing to be nourisher and care-givers of the family has presented serious difficulties for women. There has been some progress since the adoption of the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies, but the solutions to this problem have remained partial, as most national reports indicate. The trends of the 1980s continue with a slight change in the division of labour between women and men in sharing household work. Women continue to be responsible for major household tasks, such as housework, child care, and family illness. Neither the economy nor society seems to have made basic adjustments. The interconnections between paid and unpaid work continue to be elusive as suggested by some of the reports. For example, the report of Finland warns that there is a risk of transferring to the home the tasks of nursing and care, to be performed by women as unpaid work (Report, p.5).

(i) Maternity benefits, day care and household work

37. As suggested earlier, more and more women with one or two children have entered the labour market since the 1980s. This trend has, in turn, influenced the fertility rate in some countries of the region. For example in Sweden, the fertility rate per woman was 2.1 in 1992 - among the highest in Western Europe. The rise in the fertility rate was preceded by a substantial day care development programme and the introduction of parental insurance. Similarly, after a long period of declining birthrate in Denmark, there has been a steady increase in the number of live-born children since 1991.

38. To support women to continue to be in the labour market and to lighten their family responsibilities, some Governments are making concerted efforts to enhance maternity pay and leave arrangements, as in the United Kingdom. Its report states that child care provisions are growing to meet increased demand largely without Government intervention. The Government encourages growth in child care provisions with its employment and health initiatives which include the provision of some 50,000 new and after-school holiday child

care places for the over-fives for the next three years (Summary of the Report, p.3).

39. In France, reconciling professional life and family responsibility also continues to be difficult, as this is generally perceived to be essentially a woman's problem. This perception emerges from the division of labour within the household which continues to be imbalanced. In that country, women who exercise a profession devote on an average five hours per day to household tasks compared to men whose input is two hours and forty minutes, that is approximately half (Report, pp.34-35). The distribution of work in the home in Norway is also unequal; women spend three times as many hours in housework and twice as many on care of the family as men. By and large, maintenance and repairs account for a large proportion of housework carried out by men.

40. In general, the number of places for children in day care institutions has steadily increased in the Nordic Countries. Since 1978, it has been possible for fathers to share maternity benefits including parental leave with the mothers. In practice, however, statistics show that in 1991 only 2% of men have used this right in Norway. In the 1980s, the maternity benefit period in Norway was only 18 weeks; in 1990, it was increased to 28 weeks with full pay or 35 weeks with 80% pay. As of April 1993, the maternity benefit was further extended to 42 weeks with full pay or 52 weeks with 80% pay. In Denmark, the coverage of day care institutions also show great improvement; more than 64% of all babies (6-24 months) in 1994 were taken care of in the public day care system. There was a net improvement in Sweden in the percentage of married men using their parental benefit for childbirth. The percentage of married men using their parental leave increased from 22 to 39 in 1990. Three out of ten men started in 1990 to use their "benefit days" earlier than three months after the child was born.

41. Maternity benefits and leave provisions have also steadily improved in Bulgaria, where employed women are entitled to pregnancy and childbirth or adoption paid leave as follows: first child 120 days; second 150 days; third 180 days and all others 120 days. After the full maternity paid leave expires and if the children are not in a child care institution, employed women are entitled to paid leave for the rearing of the first, second and third child until it is two years old, and for six months leave for each next child (Report, pp. 13-15). Maternity leave and benefits have an adverse impact on women's employment as "in a number of instances, employers prefer to fill vacancies by men or by very young women."

(ii) Women in public life and decision-making

42. The general trend from the evidence provided by some national reports appears to be a relative increase in the number of women in public life. The statistical analysis indicates that the number of women in public life is greater in municipal, local and district level positions than at the top level of Government, ministries and parliaments. Thus, preliminary observation leads to the conclusion that if a pyramid were to be constructed of women in public life, it would show the largest number at the base; as the level gets higher and higher, the numbers get smaller and smaller until the apex, where they almost disappear.

43. The national report of Sweden has described the problem of inequality in decision-making: "Even if women have a relatively strong position in

Parliament, municipalities and county councils, much still remains to be done in this field as in other decision-making assemblies." The number of women in Parliament more than doubled between 1971 and 1985. "Between 1985 and 1988, there was an increase of 7 percentage points in the number of women MPs (from 31 to 38%), while in the 1991 election, there was a decline of 5 percentage points." The 1994 September election is expected to result in a substantial increase of female parliamentarians (see below). The present Speaker of the Parliament is a woman.

44. In Portugal, after a significant increase in women's participation at all levels during 1975 to 1985, the percentage of women in parliament has remained steady thereafter. Of 18 ministers in the present Government, two are women; of 52 Secretaries of State, four are women. The change is not only in the numbers involved but also in the portfolios which were traditionally the male domain, for example budget, finance, justice and planning. In the United Kingdom, the position of women in public life is considered to be limited. Women's representation in local authorities and on other public bodies have increased to around one in four and one in three places respectively. Their influence in key decision-making areas, such as national Parliament, and posts in the judiciary and international affairs has not improved.

45. In the countries in transition recent data show a decline in the number of women in parliaments and Government ministries, which could be a transient problem. Between 1980 and 1985 in the Russian Federation, women in parliament constituted 35%, as a result of the introduction of the quota system. After quotas were abolished, their share in the State Duma decreased to 5.3% and in the Federal Council to 8.9%. In October 1993, the founding of a political movement "Women of Russia" had the following impact on the percentages of women deputies in parliament: the total percentage is 11.4%, of which 5.6% are in the Federal Council and 13.6% in the State Duma. In Lithuania, the number of women participating in parliamentary assemblies has shown a decline since 1980. For example, in 1980 and 1985 the number of men and women in the parliament was 225 and 125 respectively; in 1994, however, the number of men decreased from 225 to 131 whilst the number of women decreased from 125 to 10. In the local representative bodies there hhasbeen hardly any appreciable change. This may reflect the changes in the electoral system, rather than rates in participation in assemblies.

(c) Implementation of international conventions and standards

46. Most of the national reports suggest that the implementation of the internationcal instruments recently adopted by the United Nations is of particular relevance for future policies. The Convention to Eliminate all Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979) and the United Nations Declaration against Violence in the Family (1991) were referred to by a number of Governments. The Ministerial Meeting of the Council of Europe in October 1993 adopted a Declaration on opposing violence against women in Europe. Several Governments have provided data and information on this subject.

47. At their June 1994 annual conference, the federal-provincial/territorial Ministries responsible for the status of women in Canada endorsed the Regina Declaration on the Rights of Women Subjected to Violence. Furthermore, the Government will pursue a two-fold approach in terms of human rights: it will "promote equal rights for women as a matter of social justice and in accordance with internationally agreed values .... and encourage the

empowerment of women within the context of their own cultures while recognizing that gender equity is not just a women's issue but a societal, economic and political issue".

48. The United Kingdom reported a much greater awareness of the issue of violence against women, in particular the relatively high prevalence of domestic assaults. A new Ministerial Interdepartmental Working Group has been set up to improve the response from agencies. The national report for Portugal mentions that "it is increasingly recognized that the issue of women's rights is a basic human rights issue and not a marginal question regarding women only but rather the whole of society". The Netherlands report also emphasizes the issue of sexual violence which was the subject of special attention during the period under review. Government policy focuses not only on the victims but also on the perpetrators of sexual violence. The persistence of basic inequality as regards violence is also commented upon in the national report of France, according to which specific violence against women has come out of the darkness and acquired greater visibility under the pressure and inspiration of women's movements.

49. All the Nordic Countries mention the problem of sexual violence with varying degrees of emphasis. For example, the national report from Sweden considers violence against women as an issue of power, underlining that the term itself covers a wide range of gender specific acts committed against women by men who, in many cases, have or have had close relations with the victims. According to this report, there is a strong link between violence against women and the lack of equality. Finland emphasizes its commitment to eliminate and prevent violence against women as well as to aid the victims of violence and to change the behaviour of the perpetrators of the acts of violence. Norway has ratified a number of international conventions providing for legal protection of women's rights, including the European Convention of Human Rights and relevant International Labour Organization standards promoting equal treatment of men and women.

50. The Republic of Bulgaria takes a strong view of violence against women, highlighting the International Convention for the Suppression of the Trafficking of Persons and the Prostitution of Others. The new draft of its Penal Code stipulates strict penalties for rape and other cases of violence against women. In 1992, of 795 cases of rape, 693 were detected; and of 818 cases of rape in 1993, 724 cases were detected and criminals captured.

III. SOME FUTURE POLICY PROPOSALS

51. Most countries have reiterated their commitment to undertake active measures to promote the status of women. The evidence from some countries of the ECE region reflects their specific efforts to establish special mechanisms to promote equality between women and men. The nature and size of these mechanisms vary from country to country and is often reflected in the modification and alteration of existing legislation. There have been some efforts, including equality plans or equality laws, to introduce better coordination at Government Ministries level to advocate actively equality policies through administrative restructuring and innovative regulations. In view of the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women, some countries, for example Sweden and the United Kingdom, are instituting new mechanisms on equality and adopting new anti-discrimination legislation.

52. Information provided by some Governments of the ECE Region shows that, since the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies were adopted in June 1985, many efforts have been made to secure formal coordination of government policy on women's issues. For example, the Government of Canada is developing a coordinated Federal plan to address women's equality and safety. It will also release a discussion paper on social security reform in the near future which will provide the necessary tools for women and men to get back into the workforce, enter the workforce for the first time or stay employed. In the United Kingdom, a Ministerial Group on women's issues was established to improve national coordination and was upgraded to a Cabinet Sub-committee in 1992. In addition, the Women's Issues Working Group provides the Secretary of State with personal advice on equal opportunities. Independent Equal Opportunities Commissions are responsible for working towards the elimination of discrimination, and the Women's National Commission acts to ensure that women's views are given due weight in Government. Since the adoption of the sex equality legislation in the United Kingdom in the mid-seventies, personnel policies and practices of business enterprises follow these provisions. Since 1990 they include the right to bring complaints of equal pay, equal retirement age, and equality in the contributions and benefits for women and men in occupational pensions. In the Netherlands, an Emancipation Policy Plan was formulated in 1985 to achieve equal opportunities, rights, freedoms and responsibilities regardless of gender and social status. Policy tools made available to the Government are legislation, affirmative action, subsidies, research and information.

53. In Sweden, to ensure better coordination among its own ministries, the Minister for Equality Affairs was given the responsibility for supervising, checking and approving each proposed appointment before it was submitted to the Cabinet. In 1988, Parliament passed legislation on policy for equality between women and men up to the mid-1990s, which contained a five year Plan of Action comprising the role of women in the economy, equality in the labour market, education of the family and finally the influence of women. Starting with an overall share of 60% in 1987, women constituted 30% of board members in Government authorities by 1992. In 1988, the Government also adopted a three year programme which established concrete time-specific targets to increase the proportion of women on boards and committees. The number of women is expected to increase by 40% by 1995, according to Government strategy.

54. The Swedish Office of the Equal Opportunities Ombudsman is responsible for advising and informing the general public to promote equality in working life, schools, higher education and labour market training. Since 1985, considerable efforts have been undertaken to make work at the regional and local levels more efficient by carrying out surveys on the situation of women in the labour market in their respective counties. There is a proposal to make funds available to set up a Focal Point for Equality in each of the 24 counties. An Equal Opportunities Act adopted on 1 January 1992 dealt with equal opportunities issues, including violence against women. In 1994, another bill was presented to Parliament entitled "shared power/shared responsibility" to provide an opportunity for a longer term approach to equality policies.

55. In Denmark, after several years of debate the necessary majority was finally obtained in Parliament, in April 1994, to adopt an anti-discrimination law which will attempt to propagate equal opportunities for women and men. As

a result of the ratification by Finland in 1982 of the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, an Act on Equality between women and men was enacted to prohibit discrimination based on gender in all fields of social life, making it obligatory on the part of Government authorities to promote actively equality between the sexes. This was amended in 1992 to promote equality of remuneration in both the public and the private sector.

56. In Norway, the Equal Status Council, which since 1980 has concentrated on working hours, wages and municipal equal status committees, has now turned its attention to women and the economy, equal pay, sexual violence and the role of women in European development. In order to achieve more efficient integration on women's issues, several efforts are being made in the 1990s to restructure the existing Equal Status Secretariat.

57. In Lithuania, the earlier mechanisms in operation from 1980 to 1985 to promote the advancement of women have become inoperative. On 11 March 1994, the Government established a State Coursellor on women's issues who has an office in the Government, but whose terms of reference have not been yet been established. In Bulgaria, information provided in the national report indicates that no special policy has yet been established with regard to safeguarding the rights of women since the introduction of structural reforms on 10 November 1989. It is recognized that the de jure equality of women with men does not automatically lead to their de facto equality in all spheres of political, economic and public life, despite official policy aimed at the strict implementation of the principle of equality of sexes.

IV. SOME CONCLUSIONS

58. It appears that the increase in the participation rates of women in the labour force as well as their share in total employment has globally increased. However, this trend needs to be qualified as indicated in Section I of this report. The structural transformation of most countries of the region has continued in favour of expanding the important service sector and reducing the share of agriculture and industry in gross domestic product. In some countries this increase is related to feminine occupations in the service sector of the respective economies. It has been observed that the percentage increase thus reflects changes in the structure of the labour demand.

59. A problem of great concern is the increase in the level of unemployment of women compared to men. Structural adjustment in the manufacturing sector has led to growing unemployment of women workers in almost every country for which information is available. The phenomenon has implications in two areas: firstly, that most women seeking work and whose prolonged efforts to find work has proved unsuccessful, have temporarily retired from the labour market; and secondly, the unemployment of women as opposed to men has had an adverse impact on the satisfaction of basic needs of the family.

60. Declining growth rates and rising unemployment combined with structural transformation has also signified that more and more women are working part-time and, in many cases, for few hours of paid work. The existing occupational segregation has further accentuated this phenomenon. This trend is leading to the creation of dominantly part-time and precarious occupations, mostly employing women as a special underclass.

61. Consequently, progress towards equality of remuneration has either stalled or slowed down depending upon the country concerned. A disturbing trend in this direction is that even in cases where women have received equivalent or even higher education in relation to men, the inequalities of remuneration have continued. It would seem that the total remuneration received by women workers as a group may have declined in relation to the 1980s.

62. The reconciliation between women's participation in working life and their unpaid family responsibilities continues to be an area of concern at the policy level. There is some evidence to show that the work hours devoted by women to child care and care of the elderly have increased. The positive feature in sharing family responsibilities between men and women is that more and more fathers in the reporting countries are now benefiting from parental leave. The maternity benefit period has been extended in most countries.

63. In most of the countries which have reported on women in public life, it appears that there has been a net increase in the number of women in local and district level positions. There has also been a rise in the number of women representatives in some legislative bodies. However, the pyramid of inequalities continues as in the 1980s. The increase in the number of women in Government ministries, cabinet positions and heads of state is very slow whilst, over the last 10 years, there has been a decrease in the number of women parliamentarians in the region as a whole.

64. In a majority of the reporting countries, policy effort has been directed to improving women's general position in society. These countries have implemented the United Nations Convention to Eliminate all Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979). The Ministerial Declaration (1993) on opposing violence against women in Europe reflects concerted effort on the part of Governments in the region to undertake special policies to eliminate violence against women at all levels.

65. There are several areas in which new institutional machinery has been established or strengthened since the adoption of the 1985 Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies. These institutional mechanisms include Equal Opportunity Commissions, Emancipation Policy Plan, Office of Equal Opportunities, Ombudsmen and Equal Status Council.

66. It is difficult to pinpoint the movement towards the advancement of women in the European region since the reporting countries reflect progress in various directions, and in varying degrees. However, it can be highlighted that participation rates of women have improved or remained stable whilst the adjustments in the labour market, particularly in equality of remuneration, are advancing very slowly. At the level of policy, legislation and institutional change, Governments have moved much faster than improvement in economic life.

ANNEX

NATIONAL REPORTS FROM ECE COUNTRIES FOR THE FOURTH WORLD CONFERENCE ON WOMEN

SEPTEMBER 1995 -- BEIJING, CHINA

Bulgaria:	National Report on the Implementation of the Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women in the Republic of Bulgaria.
Canada:	Overview, Canada's National Report to the United Nations for the Fourth World Conference on Women (July 1994).
Denmark:	Equality in Denmark, the Danish National Report to the Fourth World Conference on Women 1995, Ministry of Foreign Affairs (30 May 1994).
Finland:	Report by Finland on the Implementation of the Nairobi Strategies.
France:	Avant-Projet de Rapport National.
Kazakhstan:	Executive Summary, Current Status of Women and the Family Kazakhstan, National Committee for the Preparation of the World Conference and Minister of Social Affairs of the Republic of Kazakhstan (13 June 1994).
Lithuania:	The Main Data for the Preparation of National Report for the Fourth World Conference on Women, Deputy Chairman of the Lithuanian Preparatory Committee for the Fourth World Conference on Women (22 June 1994).
Netherlands:	Ten years after Nairobi: Report of the Measures in the Netherlands to implement the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies(NFLS) (1985-1995),Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment (1 June 1994).
Norway:	Draft National Report of Norway, Fourth World Conference on Women, Det Kongelige Barne-og Familie Department (26 May 1995).
Portugal:	Summary of the National Report, Ministerio do Empreco da Seguranca Social, Comssao Para a Igualdade e Para os Direitos das Mulheres (28 June 1994).
Russian Federation:	Main Data from the National Report, (July 1994).
Sweden:	Shared Power/Responsibility, National Report by the Government of Sweden for the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing 1995, Ministry of Health and Social Affairs (June 1994).
United Kingdom:	Developments in the United Kingdom in Areas of Interest to Women, Department of Employment (20 June 1994).

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TRENDS IN WOMEN'S ROLE IN THE ECONOMY

Report by the secretariat

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Introduction

1. The situation of women in the economy within the ECE region differs depending on whether a short-term or a long-term view is taken. While the short-term analysis indicates a deterioration in their situation, resulting from the poor economic performance of the countries in the region, the long-term perspective points at a considerable integration of women into the economic activities. Such an approach to gender analysis does not, however, reflect the important changes in the economic environment in the ECE region as well as in women's position and linkages with the economy.

2. Nearly ten years after the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace (Nairobi, 1985), the discussion on women's role in the economy is held in a radically different setting. The world has become less predictable and coherent. The collapse of communism had ended the ideological division between countries. The radical reforms in the former planned economies have been paralleled by the erosion of the traditional concept of the welfare state in the western market economies, which determined the balance between capital, organized labour and the State. Prolonged recession, technological change, globalization and environmental concerns have not only encouraged the restructuring of economic activities but have also called into question the nature of civil society and conditions for growth sustainability. The responses to these challenges and new strategies, although not fully-fledged, focus on the quality of human resources and increasingly concern social issues.

3. Women's participation in the labour market has increased markedly in all countries in the ECE region. The level and quality of female activities now have a significant impact on the overall economic performance, in particular in the service sector, where their presence in the labour force is the strongest. Against the background of the current demographic trends, with the working-age population declining in some countries, women are now an important supply of human capital, providing the bulk of new labour in the region. The feminization of the labour force has considerably enlarged women's contribution to economic growth in the formal sector, bringing them both more social and more economic independence. In this sense women have become active partners of men in the development process.

4. The change in women's position in the economy has been little recognized at policy levels. In most countries in the ECE region, formal institutions and regulations related to the labour market and welfare systems, as well as informal institutions, that is value systems and behaviours, still reflect the standards of the past: the man as sole breadwinner, security of employment and large industrial firms. Despite the progress made in the area of equal opportunities for women, including in narrowing the wage gap, most agenda items from the Nairobi Conference will also be discussed at the Beijing Conference. They have, in the meantime, however, taken on a new dimension, as changes in the economic environment and the new position of women in the economy have transformed many old problems, raised new issues and opened new avenues for women's advancement.

5. This report argues that viewing women's issues through the lenses of social and welfare policies is no longer economically justified. Women should not be looked at, as in the past, as a passive and disadvantaged social

group 1/ but as principal, even if not yet equal in many ways to men, economic actors. Building a gender-sensitive growth strategy, based on partnership between men and women, requires radical changes in the existing institutional frameworks. It requires also a new approach and new methods for formulating economic and social policies aimed at accommodating women's new role and all its consequences. Such a strategy is crucial for growth revival and its sustainability in a context of human-centred development. As a result, the gender analysis should now be part of a broader framework of economic analysis instead of a traditional sociological issue.

6. From this perspective, long-term and cyclical changes in development trends, patterns and strategies include both adverse effects as well as opportunities for women. Persistent unemployment and cuts in social expenditures have lowered the living standards in the whole ECE region, leading to more poverty. The opportunities remain largely untapped, in particular when substantial improvements in women's education are considered. In western market economies and in eastern and central European economies alike, women's jobs are segregated at the lower end of the labour market, upward mobility and career prospects are limited, and increasingly inadequate to women's skills and education. Many women are also left outside the full-time employment market. At the same time the fast growing need to coordinate women's work and family obligations is poorly reflected in the social infrastructure and in the sharing of family responsibilities.

7. The report covers a broad overview of development trends and women's situations within the ECE region. Many of these aspects are further discussed in more details in other papers, in particular on employment and entrepreneurship and the role of women in the transition process (see E/ECE/RW/HLM/4 and 5). To present an overview of economic trends in the region, this report relies on the work of the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), and in particular on the Economic Survey of Europe and the Economic Bulletin for Europe. The analysis of women's issues refers to the main thrust of the work of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, in particular the draft Platform for Action (annex to resolution 38/10, 18 March 1994) and other documents.2/ It also refers to the results of a series of consultative meetings organized by the ECE in preparation of the Beijing Conference, as well as other ECE works in this area.3/

8. The main purpose of this report is to highlight development trends within the ECE region in order to identify key areas of gender concern and formulate action-oriented proposals aimed at lowering the transaction costs of women's participation in economic activities. The report is divided into four chapters. Chapter I presents major development trends in the region and their relation to women. Chapter II discusses the main changes in women's position within the economy and society. Chapter III includes an overview of policies and institutional adjustments; and Chapter IV identifies key areas of gender concern in the changing economic environment in the region and includes broad directions for action at policy level to address these concerns.

I. DEVELOPMENT TRENDS WITHIN THE ECE REGION

9. This section highlights four major development trends in the ECE region: (i) recession and rising unemployment, (ii) growing share of the service sector and feminization of the labour force; (iii) pervasive impact of new

technologies on economic activities; (iv) globalization of economic activities and growing environmental concerns.

Table 1

Civilian employment and employment in service sector by sex, 1970-1990
(Increase in % per decade)

Country	1970 - 1980				1980 - 1990			
	Total civilian employment	Employment in service sector			Total civilian employment	Employment in service sector		
		Total	Men	Women		Total	Men	Women
North America	27	37	29	45	19	28	21	34
Canada	35	45	64	30	17	27	16	38
U.S.	26	36	26	47	19	28	22	33
4 major countries in western Europe	3	21	13	30	5	21	15	27
France	5	23	16	31	2	18	12	23
Germany	1	18	13	24	6	22	15	30
Italy	6	25	15	47	4	28	22	38
UK	3	18	9	28	6	18	12	24

Source: OECD, Labour Force Statistics, 1968-1988 and 1971-1991, and estimates

A. Recession and unemployment

10. Since 1989 the decline in economic growth rates in absolute and/or relative terms has been the major factor in the unemployment figures throughout the ECE region - with the exception of the United States where employment picked up in 1993. The sharp rise in unemployment, including that of women, has had adverse effects on incomes and living standards. It has led to economic insecurity, fear for the future and social unrest across the ECE region. In overall terms, women have been most affected as well as men in the emerging market economies in eastern and central Europe. Figure I below illustrates the changes in growth rates, unemployment and women's unemployment in major groups of ECE countries.

Growth rates have slowed and growth prospects are moderate for most countries in the region...

11. During 1989-1993, gross domestic product (GDP) and industrial output declined in absolute and/or relative terms in all ECE countries, especially in eastern and central Europe. In western market economies the decline differed from the well-known pattern of cyclical changes of the past. It has lasted longer and gone further than in the past and has, in most countries, affected all economic sectors, including services, in particular the retail trade, transport and financial services.

12. Recovery in most ECE countries, except perhaps the United States, has been slow, lowering expectations for a rapid and spontaneous upturn. Real GDP in western Europe is currently projected to increase by just under 2% in 1994 (1.5% for France and Italy; 2.0% for Germany; and 3% for the United Kingdom4/). The slow recovery could be related to the many structural factors behind the current recession and reflecting the impact of adjusting these economies to global competition and technology change although cyclical and country - specific factors also played a role.

...while unemployment increases in many countries reaching higher levels for women than men...

13. The steep increase in unemployment is a major policy problem in the ECE region. In western Europe unemployment has been on the rise for the past three years,5/ reaching the weighted annual average unemployment rate of 10.3% with wide disparities between countries and a large share of long-term unemployment. Unemployment in the United States has been lower and has recently dropped. This is usually explained by the country's more flexible labour market, which encourages the creation of new jobs. However, the United States like western Europe, has a high and rising level of youth unemployment; together they have some 10 million jobless youngsters.6/ The rise in unemployment has also been one of the major costs of economic reform in eastern and central Europe, where unemployment rates at the end of 1993 ranged from 10 to 30%, except for the Czech Republic and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) where the rates were lower.7/ Female unemployment levels are higher than men's in many countries within the ECE region, though the gap between female and male unemployment presents a more homogenous pattern in transition economies. Only two countries, Hungary and Slovenia, show higher male unemployment rates.8/

14. Against the background of moderate growth prospects, it seems unlikely that unemployment within the ECE region will be eliminated or cut significantly, except perhaps in the United States.9/

...straining the existing welfare systems ...

15. Recession and fast rising unemployment have added to the demands on social protection, exhausting public and private resources.

16. Public expenditure on social programmes, including income support programmes and services, has already reached a relatively high level of GDP in most countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Between 1960 and 1980 the cost of social programmes virtually doubled, rising from an average of 13% to 25% of GDP.10/ These programmes could be supported up to mid-1970 thanks to the strong economic growth and the high level of employment. During the 1980s, after the oil crises, with the deterioration of economic performance and growing budgetary constraints, growth in GDP still kept pace with the growth in real expenditure on social protection in the OECD countries. That expenditure represented some 27% of GDP both in 1985 and in 1990. Initial evidence suggests that during the last few years, social expenditure may have risen again.11/ _It is believed that the generous level of social benefits in western Europe explains to a large extend the low competitiveness of European industries through its impact on production costs without a concomitant rise in labour productivity.

17. In eastern and central Europe the situation is more complex. The dramatic decline in growth rates combined with massive unemployment and the rapid process of income polarization have placed a heavy burden on the existing welfare systems, based on across-the-board benefits. Decisions to cut social spending - a politically highly sensitive issue anywhere - are especially difficult in transition societies, where State protection has been the norm for half a century or more.

18. Welfare systems in the eastern and in the western part of the ECE region are now under increasing pressure to enhance the efficiency of public services and to align social spending with available resources. To reconcile the costs of social programmes with budgetary constraints, two well-known but unpopular options are available: increase in direct or indirect taxation, or/and cuts in social benefits in absolute or relative terms, as compared to economic trends. Although few countries have, so far, decided to cut public spending across the board, as the Netherlands did for disability and unemployment benefits between 1983 and 1987 or Ireland and Belgium for unemployment benefits in 1983 and 1987 respectively,12/ most countries achieved similar results through indirect means such as restricting entitlements to benefits, as in many southern countries, but also in Belgium and Denmark. During the past decade efforts to curb social expenditure were common in all western market economies in the ECE region and included the reorganization of State-provided services, stricter controls on public expenditure, privatization and the introduction of market mechanisms.

19. A prolonged reversal of the expansionary trend in public expenditure has serious effects, actual and potential, on jobs and levels of social protection of men and in particular women. It has already resulted in the slow-down or, in few countries such as the United Kingdom, the reversal of employment growth in the public sector. Many women's jobs in health, education and social services were reclassified, which meant moving to less paid and less protected jobs in the private sector, or simply cut, though the pattern of these changes differed from country to country.13/ Women were also affected more than men as recipients of many social benefits. The deterioration of the social infrastructure affected women directly by narrowing down access to and/or diminishing the level of social benefits, and indirectly by adding to women's overloaded time budgets many "care-giving" functions for children, the elderly and the disabled provided formerly by the State. Finally, the pressure to limit social expenditure has its psychological effects on societies fearful of the future levels of social protection.

...lowering living standards in societies in the ECE region, in particular in economies in transition ...

20. Men and women in all ECE countries have been adversely affected by the recession, growing unemployment and the changing trends in social protection. The degree of hardship differs from country to country and depends on the overall economic performance and the accompanying policy measures. Incomes and living standards have dropped most in transition economies, which, together with the sharp rise in death rates, suggests that these societies are also going through a purely physical trauma. In western market economies cuts in income levels were, perhaps, most severe for unskilled workers on the little protected American labour market, where real wages in the lowest-paid 10% of jobs fell by more than 1% a year in the 1980s, and in the United Kingdom,

where social protection has been reduced significantly during the past decade.14/

21. The deterioration in living conditions has been accompanied by a polarization of incomes and an increase in poverty. The traditionally most vulnerable social groups, which follow a similar pattern across countries (elderly on minimum pensions, large families, single-parent families, migrants, minority groups) have been joined by the "new" poor. The number of prime-age urban workers, male and female, in particular among the low-skilled, living on welfare and unemployment benefits is on the rise not only in transition economies but also in North America and western Europe. In Europe there is also another group of "new" poor, consisting of refugees and displaced workers, victims of ethnic strife, in particular in the former Yugoslavia and the former Soviet Union.

...though having a different overall impact on men and women.

22. It is difficult, if not impossible, to fully assess the gender impact of the current recession. The number of studies is limited and the existing data, for example, on western Europe present a mixed picture. Given the sectoral impact of the current recession in western Europe, men seem to be losing jobs faster than women. Once lost, however, women's jobs are more difficult to find and unemployment rates for women, including in eastern and central Europe are, with some exceptions such as Hungary, consistently higher than men's. Due to the pattern of the recent recession, women's jobs in the service sector have also been less well protected than during the previous recessions. As a result, female workers are more often discouraged to re-enter the workforce than men.15/

23. There seems to be little doubt that women and men have been affected differently by the recent economic trends due to differences in their employment patterns, levels of wages as well as their uneven dependency on welfare. It could be hypothesized that whilst in western market economies women's employment losses were, perhaps, less severe than men's, other factors such as the generally lower income levels of female workers, the high levels of women's unemployment and their greater dependency on social benefits had strong opposite effects. As a result women tend to fall into poverty more frequently than men, stay in poverty longer and face additional obstacles when trying to work their way out of it. The risk of falling into poverty is, perhaps, the greatest for single mothers and older women living alone.16/

24. Within the ECE region the most rapid proliferation of women's poverty has been in transition countries, except perhaps in the Czech Republic, and in particular in the CIS. In western market economies poverty clusters exist in southern Europe, though recent studies suggest that in the 1980s poverty rates were above average in households headed by women not only in Ireland and Spain but also in Belgium, France and the United Kingdom.17/ Poverty is also a major problem in America's inner cities where pockets of extreme poverty persist, few adults work, most children are raised without fathers and "crime is the career of choice".18/

B. Restructuring of economic activities and feminization of the labour force

25. During the past two decades economic activity in western market economies has undergone deep restructuring, which has had a significant impact on women's employment. In transition economies structural changes have only just begun.

During the past two decades the rapid expansion of the service sector in western market economies ...

26. The rapid expansion of the service sector and the concomitant growth in employment was driven, in particular in the 1980s, by a combined growth in services to businesses and social and personal services. The role of public and private sector services in the growth of the whole service sector differed from country to country. While in many European countries, in particular in Scandinavia, the growth in services was associated more with the rise in public spending on welfare, in the United States and the United Kingdom it was clearly led by the rapid development of financial services, insurance and other private sector services. This trend resulted in the restructuring of economic activities and a shift in resources away from labour-intensive and heavy industries and manufacturing. The share of the service sector in western market economies now amounts on average to over 60% of GDP, and between 50 and 70% of all jobs.

...has increased the demand for women's labour, creating many new jobs for female workers...

27. The expansion of the service sector favoured women's employment due to demographic factors and the fast growing demand for clerical and "caring" positions in the private and public sector. During the 1970s and 1980s, the overwhelming majority of new service jobs in banking and insurance, retailing and public services in Canada, the United States and western Europe were entry-level positions in traditionally female occupations. This largely compensated the loss of female jobs in labour-intensive industries. The levels of feminization of public and private service sectors differed from country to country and the pattern was consistent with the underlying differences in the creation of new jobs as described above. Consequently, most new female jobs in the United States and the United Kingdom were in the private sector, while in other countries, in particular in northern countries, most women found jobs as State employees. The relationship between the level of female participation, the rise in non-manual jobs and the expansion of services has been very close in all western market economies, and has closed the gap between men and women on the labour market.19/

28. Certainly, at the individual level the match was not perfect and not all women who lost their jobs in the textile or leather industries found new jobs in services. The new jobs were not necessarily located in the regions most affected by structural changes, and many women, especially older women and women with few skills, could not be retrained. The fast growing demand for female workers in the service sector in all western economies in the ECE region made it possible, however, for a growing number of women to remain and/or to join the labour market.

...a trend which may not continue in the 1990s...

29. Overall employment growth in the service sector, a primary source of new female jobs in the past, is expected to slow down in the 1990s, as compared to 1980s and a polarization of jobs is likely to occur. Currently, the service sector in North America and western Europe, in particular the financial sector, retailing and the public sector, is being restructured as manufacturing was in the 1980s, in response to financial constraints, competitive pressure and new technologies. Job cuts and early retirement schemes are introduced as firms consolidate or are taken over, in particular in the private sector. As discussed earlier, the pressure to reduce the public deficit and cut public spending has similar effects on women's jobs in the public sector.

...while in transition economies structural changes have just begun and their impact on women's employment is difficult to predict.

30. The existing data suggest that eastern and central European economies have already entered the period of structural adjustments stimulated by privatization. Since 1989 the service sector has expended rapidly in most countries of eastern and central Europe and at the same time the share of heavy capital goods, such as engineering and metallurgy, has declined and that of consumer goods, such as food processing and textiles, has been on the rise. The situation on the labour market in transition economies differs, however, significantly from that of western economies in the 1980s and the impact of these changes on women's employment is difficult to predict.20/

C. Pervasive impact of new technologies on economic activities

31. Technology change, led by the rapid progress in information technology, a major generic technology today, and in biotechnology and genetic engineering, has pervasive effects on the economy as a whole, including on production and consumption patterns, the organization of economic activities and lifestyles.

Computer-based technologies have changed the contents and organization of production processes...

32. Computer-based technologies initiated irreversible changes in the contents and organization of the production process in western market economies. Industries based on economies of scale have been replaced by industries based on economies of scope organized in a way which allows the production of small batches of widely varying products according to customer's specifications. New industries are quality- and customer-oriented and have a high conceptual component. They rely heavily on services such as design, marketing, advertising and after-sales services, which are an increasingly important and integral, part of manufacturing. The conventional division between services and manufacturing has become blurred, as a significant and growing part of the value added in manufacturing consists of services.

33. One of the consequences has been the proliferation of small, highly specialized and closely interrelated firms in accountancy, insurance, legal and financial consultancy, which employ workers with individual problem-solving capacity organized in flexible teams. These companies emerge in many countries as the main employers and often operate as intermediaries between the declining formal sector and the overcrowded informal sector. In the United States, for example, between 1981 and 1985, 88% of the net job creation was in

enterprises with 1 to 19 employees.21/ These companies are often keen to hire women, especially highly educated women with degrees in law, business or management, who, for a variety of reasons, are more willing than men to accept flexible working arrangements.

...focusing on the quality of human capital, redefining jobs...

34. Recent studies suggest that there is no evidence that technology creates unemployment. It is thought that the elimination of low-skilled jobs by automation processes is compensated by the creation of new, high-skilled and more productive jobs.22/ Technology change has, however, a significant impact on the move away from low-skilled jobs in both manufacturing and services. Workers' tasks become more versatile, requiring a good basic education and a commitment to continuous learning and on-the-job training. The service sector often requires not only social skills but also familiarity with information technologies. Designers, accountants and bankers now have to possess high general qualifications and understand modern manufacturing, computer programming and systems engineering. Progress in technology is also rapid in services and redefines numerous traditionally "female" occupations such as clerical jobs or nursing. Modern secretaries and nurses also have to be more technically oriented and able to understand and operate complex office or medical equipment.23/ Hiring is now more than ever an important investment decision, given the high costs of training a new worker and the fact that creative and well-educated workers are an important asset in mastering technical change.

...and career patterns in a move towards more flexible production systems.

35. The trend towards increasing the flexibility of production systems has been associated both with efforts to cut production costs and with the requirements of a modern production profile which has to react quickly to new technologies, changes in demand and economic environment. The latter increases the demand for horizontal mobility of workers able to perform various tasks within a company, whilst the former involves more external flexibility in terms of quantity and quality of employed workers. This is leading to a new employment pattern. It is built around a core group of full-time workers with a high level of "generic" technical knowledge combined with social skills (team work) and problem-solving capacity, and a large "periphery" including workers employed "when needed". The latter group often, though not exclusively, consists of lower-skilled and more narrowly specialized workers employed under non-standard contracts.

36. The result has been a fast growing variety of non-standard work contracts,24/ which have now become a more permanent feature of labour markets in western market economies, although their share varies significantly between countries.25/ The proliferation of atypical work contracts has some advantages, for example, flexible work schedules. Under the existing labour market regulations in most countries, they are, however, largely associated with low job security and lower pay and are most often used by firms to cut labour costs. The length of the contracts is subject to frequent changes; access to social benefits, training or upward mobility is limited and wages and salaries are, in general, lower than for full-time jobs. The non-standard employment market is highly feminized, although patterns of atypical work vary significantly across countries.

D. Globalization of economic activities and growing environmental concerns

37. Globalization encompasses not only the facilitation of international trade of goods but also the integration of national production systems through the increased mobility of capital and labour. In a broader sense, this process leads also to the integration of societies and many of their problems, such as the need for protecting the environment. During the last decade, the globalization of economic activities has accelerated significantly, with computer technologies making it possible to move money and information rapidly around the globe. Countries in the ECE region play a leading role in the globalization process both worldwide and within the region. The effect has been to increase the interdependence of their economies and policies in many areas, despite the simultaneous trends towards fragmentation and nationalism which have strengthened in the region since 1989.

The globalization process has sharpened competition and increased the mobility of capital and labour, linking national production systems worldwide...

38. Since the 1960s, during the broad liberalization process, barriers to international trade in goods, external financial transactions, transfer of technology and, more recently, services and some aspects of labour movements have been lowered. The process was uneven and highly influenced by government policies, as exemplified by successive rounds of negotiations within the framework of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, and in particular the terms of the recently concluded Uruguay Round.

39. The increase in the mobility of capital across borders is closely related to foreign direct investment (FDI) and the emergence of transnational corporations (TNCs). Most TNCs come from the ECE region and they are now major actors on the global scene. Foreign-direct-investment flows, the principal measure of annual changes in the cross-border investment activities of TNCs, increased throughout the post-war period, experiencing unprecedented acceleration during the second half of the 1980s. Between 1985 and 1990, worldwide FDI outflows increased at a rate of 24% a year, almost twice as fast as that of the growth in exports and two and a half times as fast as that of the growth in world output.26/

40. Recent regional initiatives, such as those within the European Union (EU), the European Economic Area (EEA), and the North American Free Trade Association (NAFTA) have eased restrictions on the mobility of labour, especially business people and professionals. Also, the Uruguay Round provides incipient rules for the negotiation of the progressive liberalization of the temporary movement of persons supplying services. Slower economic growth and the recession in the developed countries have led or will lead to the tightening of immigration laws, which could put a halt to these possibilities and hamper the internationalization of labour markets. So far, the number of migrating workers is limited and cross-border mobility affects only a small portion of the world's labour force. It is estimated that only 1.5% of the workforce is currently employed in countries outside those of their citizenship.27/

41. Although the labour market has remained largely closed, in particular for low-skilled labour, this is a relative statement, as the ECE countries have been the most important job market for foreign workers. Countries in western

Europe are now the largest employers of foreign workers in the world with some 6 million workers, followed by the United States and the Middle East (5 million each). A growing share of these workers come from developing countries and most are unlikely to become permanent residents in these host countries.28/

42. The globalization process, which constantly aims to reallocate production processes in search of the most advantageous conditions, in particular relatively cheap labour as compared to its quality, has a direct impact on the stability of women's jobs in manufacturing and services. This process also affects women indirectly through changes in work contracts and the working conditions of their family members. This has led more women migrants to leave their native countries independently, including through employment agencies, or to accompany a male family member. Overall, women migrants are vulnerable as a group; they usually work in isolation, often as domestic workers, without a support network or social protection. Some reside illegally in the host country and are exposed to sexual harassment and violence. Some women migrants follow a global career of their own or migrate because their husbands working with an international company are transferred.29/

...and at regional level...

43. The collapse of the centrally planned economic system opens new prospects for integrating eastern and central European countries with the west. The process is highly complex and involves economic and social concerns, given the differences in economic development, as well as unemployment problems and recessionary conditions in western Europe. One of the most difficult and urgent problems is an expected increase in migration to western Europe, in particular from poorer countries of eastern and central Europe, including refugees from war-affected zones. This pressure is very strong considering the wage gap and differences in living standards.30/ It could be, expected, however, that the improvement in economic performance in transition economies, especially in those that have made most progress in building a market economy and in the economic situation in western Europe, will result in closer ties between European countries.

...increasing the concerns for environmental protection...

44. Environmental concerns have a serious and growing, twofold impact on the economies within the ECE region. The degradation of the natural environment entails serious costs in terms of direct economic losses as a result of pollution damage to crops, damage to buildings from acid deposits, or a drop in revenues from tourism, as well as indirect ones by lowering the quality of life in many regions in Europe and North America. One central question continues to be its cost in terms of human health, as environmental degradation has been directly related to the increase in mortality rates and the decrease in life expectancy. At the same time the pressure to save the natural environment stimulates new research, leading to the development of new technologies and the emergence of new industries. Environment-related businesses and economic activities, such as low-waste technologies, recycling industries, natural food production and sales, are expanding rapidly in most countries in the ECE region, creating new jobs.

45. Environmental protection is now considered as a global problem and a real challenge for all Governments in the ECE region, which are having to decide

how to deal with the "free" public good that is our environment. The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, forcefully brought home the importance of international action to conserve the biosphere, control climatic change, curb transfrontier pollution and preserve biological diversity. The regulation policies through bans, standards and licences are combined with economic instruments such as taxes and charges.31/ Economic measures, such as a proposal to apply a combined carbon/energy tax, are, for example, considered by the Commission of the European Communities. The Economic Commission for Europe initiates and coordinates many aspects of environmental cooperation at regional level. Since 1990, environment-related activities, which are now one of five priority areas for assistance programmes to the former planned economies, have focused on eastern and central Europe.

46. Women's involvement in environmental issues has traditionally been strong. Women's NGOs in North America, western and, increasingly, eastern and central Europe, have been very active in raising social awareness, indicating the most urgent actions to be taken, and participating in finding solutions at local, national, regional and international level. They are also motivated and interested in looking for environment-related jobs.

...redefining the concept of competitiveness ...

47. The concept of what makes a country competitive and prosperous has changed significantly over the last decade, or so. As illustrated by Japan and Singapore on the one hand and the former Soviet Union and other formerly planned economies on the other, the way national assets are managed, organized and combined matters more than their mere possession. Competitiveness and comparative advantages are increasingly associated with creative assets and the quality of human resources instead of traditional cost factors. Although some comparative advantages still exist, in particular in traditional industries, their role in establishing a country's position on global markets has been shrinking.32/

...and affecting the thinking on how institutions and social policies contribute to the development process.

48. Conceptually, the governance of more flexible production systems requires a redefinition of the role of the State and the market in the development process. Organizing and monitoring markets increases transaction costs and results in more externalities than in the mass production system of the 1950s and 1960s. The proliferation of internal and cross-border linkages between firms, research institutions, Governments, trade unions and individuals, imposed by technology change and competition, requires close and harmonious cooperation between a large number of independent economic agents. This breaks the traditional dichotomy between the state and the market where the two are considered as substitutes for each other. It is questioned on theoretical grounds whether the neoclassical framework, primarily concerned with how the market operates, could provide proper guidance to how the market develops 33/ and frequent are the calls for finding the best complementary combination between the State and market forces.34/

49. In a modern growth strategy, social policies have an important and active role to play, so perhaps, the concept of social efficiency should be reconsidered. Education, health, and environment policies but also income policies have a growing impact on economic performance through their

relationship with the quality of the labour force and social peace. Social coherence and solidarity determine the limits to social injustice beyond which it no longer serves as an incentive for better work.35/ Despite significant differences in these limits among countries, the levels of living standards and social benefits at which they are established have now increased as most societies tend to have high expectations for improvements in the quality of life. It could be speculated therefore that, with these expectations and the importance of quality aspects of human resources in the development process, the marginal "utility" of equity, as expressed in terms of efficiency, has increased in most societies. From this perspective human-centred development is not only an ultimate goal in itself but also a condition for sustained growth.36/ Once accepted, this reasoning has a number of policy implications such as the fact that social policies can no longer be considered as a "residual" component to be developed within a given macroeconomic context.37/

II. CHANGES IN WOMEN'S POSITION IN THE ECONOMY AND SOCIETY

50. The main purpose of this section is to look at development trends within the ECE region from the women's perspective. It encompasses the evolution of women's position in the labour market and within the family at a time when the gap between the "gender" and "employment" contract is growing. Whilst the latter evolved significantly with the increase of women's participation in paid employment the former remained practically stagnant. The inconsistency of the "social contract" which embodies these two parts increasingly threatens the very foundations of the welfare state. It has resulted in the rapid devaluation of the norms that these contracts established (man as sole breadwinner and non-working wife) and ways through which men and women have been defined (men being individualized through public institutions, women through marriage and family).

A. Women and paid work

51. From a long-term perspective there have been three major trends in women's work: (i) more permanent attachment of women to the labour force; (ii) continuing vulnerability of their position at work; and (iii) increasing difficulty to reconcile work with family responsibilities.

"Permanent" housewife is rare as a career model for women within the ECE region as they have moved towards more active professional lifestyles ...

52. Women have changed their own behavioral patterns and there has been an exogenous shift in their preferences. They responded to the expanding job opportunities, increasing the female participation rate, a counterpart of the rise in the female share in employment discussed in chapter I, in all western market economies in the ECE region, except for Turkey, and very recently in eastern and central Europe. Almost 80% of women in Scandinavia or in eastern and central Europe work in the formal sector and around 40% have paid jobs in Greece, Ireland and Spain.

53. The rising female participation derived from a combination of social and economic changes which during the past twenty years have increased the rewards of participation and reduced the costs. Smaller families and improvements in technology to manage household tasks (cleaning, cooking, etc) were matched by

an improvement in women's education, diminishing the gap between male and female wages and, perhaps until recently, offering better access to jobs. Most women, in particular of the younger generation, now not only need paid employment for a variety of reasons, including changing family patterns, discussed below, but are also more often interested in pursuing a professional career of their own. Fewer women are now putting their careers on hold to get married or have children. The changing participation pattern according to age which is similar to that of men in a growing number of countries, would tend to indicate that fertility no longer prevents or interrupts women's work in the formal sector as it once did.

54. Women's increased economic independence resulting from paid work has had a number of consequences for the economy, affecting the levels and patterns of consumption and production. Second family incomes have increased the overall consumption potential. At the same time women's preferences, supported now by their own incomes and different in many ways from men's, stimulated the development of many "female"-oriented industries such as fashion or beauty products. Women's role in making decisions about family consumption also increased, creating jobs for other women, for instance, in real estate, now a highly feminized profession in most ECE countries. Although these arguments refer primarily to the situation in western market economies, it can be expected that similar trends will be observed in transition economies with the free play of market forces.

...although their position on the labour market is still very vulnerable...

55. Despite the considerable improvement in access to work, women's jobs are concentrated in repetitive, routine and badly paid jobs at the lower, often dead-end, level of the labour market. "Female" market segments are similar in western market economies and eastern and central European countries and are clustered in consumer industries, public sector and selected services (hotels, catering, secretarial jobs, retail trade, personal care). Women are also considered by enterprises as a large pool of flexible labour and their employment is commonly structured around areas of frequent labour adjustment. A large part of women's work in the formal sector is done under atypical work contracts offering not only lower pay but also a low level of social protection or none at all.

56. The reasons for women's vulnerability are complex. Most western market and eastern and central European economies already have an extensive legislative framework aimed at equal treatment of men and women in particular in paid employment. Many specific actions and programmes have also been undertaken at regional level, in particular in the European Community where the third equal opportunities action programme (1991-1995), focused on developing the legal framework, promoting jobs for women and improving women's status in society, is being implemented.38/ Under these conditions it could be assumed that the composition of female skills and knowledge, heavily biased in most countries towards social rather than technical areas, and perhaps more manual than conceptual in their overall content, mismatched with major trends in the demand for labour, explains some of the differences between women's and men's positions on the labour market.

57. Gender inequality, however, is more systemic and cannot be analysed outside the existing social contract, part of which is a gender contract which assigns productive and reproductive roles by gender. This is the traditional

gender contract which explains the socially accepted and "appropriate" profile for female education, access to vocational, on-the-job and other forms of education and training, and, perhaps most importantly, the time women have during their working day for learning purposes. This contract determines also the cost of women's labour; it sees reproduction as exclusively a female concern and reinforces the perception of women as "expensive", and perhaps less reliable labour because of maternity, child and other family-related benefits.

...and their future uncertain...

58. Persistent unemployment has increased competition on the labour market, including that in the traditional female occupations in the service sector such as nursing. Other economic trends and concomitant changes on the labour market are, so far, not encouraging and could have a negative impact on the majority of female jobs considering their vertical and horizontal segregation in all ECE countries. Technology changes and "lean" strategies in the state and private sector limit the number of new "female" jobs, and eliminate many of the old ones by altering their job descriptions and skill requirements. This applies in particular to many low or middle-level clerical or "caring" jobs, typically female positions, which tend to be eliminated, either because they are downgraded to low-skill positions or upgraded to more specialized posts.

59. At the same time women with advanced degrees in law, business or management could possibly benefit from new opportunities. This might be related to the development of highly specialized services, such as design, customization and maintenance to manufacturing in particular of high-technology products.39/ Job opportunities for women seem to be better in smaller companies than in large corporations. As discussed in chapter I, smaller companies, tend to provide a growing portion of new jobs in developed market economies and, to some extent, favour women's employment. Large corporations follow more traditional hiring practices with fewer part-time and atypical contracts. A recent survey of sixty managers of United States TNCs also shows that they hesitate to select women for assignments abroad because of safety concerns, the hazards of travelling as well as loneliness and isolation, especially for single women.40/ There may also be new job opportunities for women in self-employment and entrepreneurship, including as business consultants.

60. There are reasons to believe, however, that the labour market in the future will offer relatively few high-skilled and well paid white-collar jobs as compared to the large number of low-skilled and badly paid jobs. Among the twenty occupations which will generate the most new jobs in the United States by 2005, a majority are in services, and only three to five of these jobs (general managers and top executives; accountants and auditors; systems analysts and computer scientists, and perhaps secondary schools teachers and computer programmers) could be considered as high-skilled jobs, while the others are low-wage and unskilled positions in food services, health care and retailing (table 2). The choice between reskilling or accepting low-skill, low-pay jobs is not easy, as the upgrading of skills and investment in education will not necessarily guarantee a well paid job. This segment of the labour market is becoming very competitive in most western market economies of the region and many workers risk to be little rewarded by their efforts to improve their qualifications and learn new, often complicated, skills.41/

The polarization of jobs is also likely in most transition economies, although its pace and pattern could differ, in some countries even significantly, from the trends observed in the west.

Table 2

Twenty occupations with the most new jobs, 1990-2005
(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation	Projected employment growth, 1990-2005	
	Number	Per cent
Salespersons, retail	887	24.5
Registered nurses	767	44.4
Cashiers	685	26.0
General office clerks	670	24.5
Truck drivers	617	26.1
General managers and top executives	598	19.4
Janitors & cleaners, including maids & housekeepers	555	18.5
Nursing aides, orderlies and attendants	552	43.4
Food counter, fountain and related workers	550	34.2
Waiters and waitresses	449	25.7
Teachers, secondary school	437	34.2
Receptionists and information clerks	422	46.9
Systems analysis and computer scientists	366	78.9
Food preparation workers	365	31.6
Child care workers	353	48.8
Gardeners/groundskeepers	348	39.8
Accountants and auditors	340	34.5
Computer programmers	317	56.1
Teachers, elementary	313	23.0
Guards	298	33.7

Sources: Extrapolated from Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin 2402, May 1992, Table 3, p.80 in Needleman, Ruth, "Raising visibility, reducing marginality", study prepared for the U.S. Department of Labour, October 1993.

...and family responsibilities are increasingly difficult to combine with a professional career.

61. In all ECE countries the bulk of unpaid house work remains the woman's responsibility regardless of her status and position on the labour market.

Many countries in the ECE region have put in place supportive legislation, such as parental leave, which enables both women and men to share some of the family responsibilities. In many countries attitudes towards sharing responsibilities have also changed. In the United Kingdom, for example, 54% of respondents to a recent survey thought that the preparation of the evening meal should be shared, but only 20% actually did share it.42/ The gap between men's and women's shares in household chores is still great. According to recent surveys, working women in Canada or in France still spend, on average, over four hours a day doing unpaid work at home, twice as much as men.43/

62. Individual "survival" strategies differ according to women's economic status, type of work, education, family situation and traditions. Some have substantially increased the number of services bought from the outside, including the employment of live-in domestic help. Some rely on other women in the family such as mothers or grandmothers, a common solution in eastern and central Europe where the State infrastructure is crumbling and well developed private sector services are lacking. Increasingly demanding career paths, growing job insecurity and more competition on the labour market have made more women, in particular in large urban areas, decide to delay marriage and childbirth or perhaps even to remain single. Most of those who tried to combine career with family life are deeply frustrated by the experience of the "super-mom" track of the 1980s.

B. Social relations between men and women

63. Social relations between men and women have changed considerably over the past two decades challenging the traditional concept of the family and accelerating the erosion of the traditional "social contract".

The evolution of patterns of family formation and reproduction ...

64. During the past twenty years or so, patterns of family formation and reproduction have changed. The trends in North America and Europe show later and less frequent marriages, declining fertility rates, often below replacement levels, and rising divorce rates although the majority of divorcees remarry.44/ The change in family formation and reproduction reflects a number of complex socio-economic factors. Modern family planning methods, the introduction or liberalization of divorce laws, better access for women to higher education, women's need to and interest in pursuing paid work, but also the increasing costs of bringing up and educating children and the geographic mobility of labour could go some way towards explaining this fundamental social transformation. Its consequences include ageing societies endangering the labour supply in the decades to come as well as new lifestyles and higher expectations for women of younger generations.

...results in a growing number of alternative living arrangements and smaller families including single-parent families...

65. There are various views of what a family is. This results in different moral judgements on the present trends, which vary from moral decay to emancipation from patriarchal subordination.45/ The facts are, however, that the traditional two-parent family with children is less typical within the ECE region than a decade ago and the number of single-parent families, divorced or raising children born out of wedlock, as well as cohabiting couples and/or parents is on the rise. The share of married couples with children of all

households declined during 1960-1988 from 36 to 22% in Sweden and from 38 to 28% in the United Kingdom.46/ The share of single-parent families as a proportion of all family households is as high as 23% in the United States (1988) and 20% in Denmark to under 10% in southern Europe.

66. The rise in the incidence of cohabitation without marriage in a number of countries is sometimes temporary, leading eventually to marriage, or is treated as an alternative to the institution of marriage. The latter is frequent in the Netherlands and in Scandinavian countries but less so in central Europe. The number of births out of wedlock in the United States and in western Europe also increased, from 7.8% to 44.7% in Denmark and from 5.2% to 25.1% in the United Kingdom between 1960-1988. This, however, is interpreted differently in the light of family models. While in Scandinavian countries it should be seen as the result of cohabitation, in the United States and the United Kingdom it reflects rather teenage pregnancies, uncommon in Scandinavian countries.47/

67. During the 1980s the size of the average household, as measured by the number of persons per household, diminished in most ECE countries, as illustrated by figure II. The size of the average household in the EU countries, for example, decreased in all countries, though to a various degree, and now averages from 1.7 persons in Denmark to 3.4 persons in Spain.

...and elderly women living alone...

68. More and more elderly women live alone in North America, as well as in western, eastern and central Europe.48/ This reflects the overall ageing trend, in particular in western European societies, as well as the higher life expectancy for women than men which results in high levels of widowhood among elderly women. In the EU countries there are nearly twice as many old women (75+) as men.49/

69. This group of elderly women is especially vulnerable and at risk of social exclusion due to their lack of income, physical impairment or chronic illness. They are commonly disadvantaged in social security and pensions as compared to men.50/ Existing social protection is often inadequate to address their problems and there are fewer women available to provide such care on a voluntary basis. When such care is available it involves younger women who often have to care for both their children and their ageing mothers and/or mothers-in-law at the same time.

...which together with the increasing number of dual-income families illustrates the erosion of the traditional "social" contract within the ECE region.

70. The erosion of the traditional social contract has been marked though certainly uneven across the ECE region. It differed among countries in relation to patterns of women's employment, tradition and culture, and varied across social groups, urban and rural areas and at household level. The existing "social" contract has, however, been continuously challenged by the economic and social transformation in the ECE region. Women are no longer confined to the role of housewives and men are not the only breadwinners. At the same time full-time, secure male jobs are increasingly scarce and many men live on unemployment benefit. Globalization and technology also impose more

flexible working contracts and may require many families to live apart for shorter or longer periods of time, which may further affect the traditional unity and stability of a family.

III. POLICIES AND INSTITUTIONS: SLOW PACE OF UPDATING THE WELFARE STATE

71. The response at institutional and policy levels to the new developments and the erosion of the traditional social contract has so far been very limited. This section presents a short overview of institutional change and policies within the ECE region based on stylized facts rather than detailed description of the evolution of national policies and institutional adjustments. Both the former and the latter varied, often significantly, at country level and over time.

Deregulation and privatization policies ...

72. During the last decade Governments in western market economies and elsewhere followed the neoclassical prescription on how to deal with new economic and social problems. During the 1980s, in response to declining economic performance and mounting inflationary pressure, Governments in the ECE region withdrew from the direct management of economic activities through privatization and deregulation policies and adopted more restrictive macroeconomic policies. Fighting inflation was given priority over maintaining full employment through tightening the control of monetary aggregates and establishing monetary stability. The reduction in aggregate demand resulted in a loss of output and contributed to unemployment.51/ More recently, the deregulation of labour markets, combined with selective protection of the most affected social groups and perhaps, more education and training, has been gaining ground in western Europe as a reaction of Government to unemployment and recession. The United States seems to be moving in the opposite direction, trying to diminish the most drastic inequalities in society with recent proposals for health care reform and the introduction of social security.

73. Similar policy schemes to improve economic efficiency have been applied, on an unprecedented scale, in eastern and central Europe after 1989 in order to "fix" the centrally planned system. Most Governments in these countries followed the traditional mix of monetary and fiscal policies. Privatization-cum-stabilization programmes accompanied by extensive liberalization and deregulation of economic activities have proceeded, but have come under increasing pressure from society that wishes to maintain the level of social benefits. These policies are now being reassessed both in transition economies and in western market economies against the background of unemployment, the slow recovery from recession and the stretched institutional capabilities to deal with new problems.

...failed to recognize and address the social implications of the new situation in the region at large ...

74. Macroeconomic policies of developed market economies, consistent with economic models, have been little concerned with the comprehensive analysis and subsequent adjustments of the existing welfare systems to the new economic and social situation. The discussion focused primarily on how to curb the level of social expenditure to achieve global monetary and fiscal equilibrium and not on how to adapt the expenditure to the new problems. So far, the

social and political implications of ageing populations, the feminization of the labour force, long-term unemployment, the impoverished workforce, fast growing polarization of incomes and new patterns of poverty including among refugees and migrants, have received little recognition at policy level, in particular in the context of a longer-term growth strategy and growth prospects. This contrasts with a growing consensus that the world's economic difficulties are not transient but largely related to a fundamental mutation of the contemporary economy.52/

...and the new role for women in the economy...

75. Women seem to be disproportionately affected by the slow pace of institutional adjustment. The existing welfare systems differ significantly among countries and do not treat women in the same way. The levels and quality of protection, as well as the premises on which the entitlements are granted, that is "individual" or "derived" entitlements, differ within the liberal regime, with market patriarchalism and a residual welfare state, such as in the United States; in the "Nordic" social-democratic regime with egalitarian policies and in the conservative regime with welfare state patriarchalism and an institutional welfare state of Germany or Austria. Women's situation is different again in the "Latin Rim"-type country with agrarian/clerical patriarchalism and elementary welfare systems, such as in Greece or Spain, where a high proportion of people is not eligible for benefits. Neither of these regimes, however, except the Nordic model in some areas, allows women to combine a career with balanced family life.53/

... which revealed signs of an institutional crisis across the region...

76. Throughout the ECE region there is a sense of institutional crisis both in terms of formal institutions, such as labour market regulation, education systems, and in terms of informal norms of behaviour that people use to explain the world and determine how it ought to be. The major premises on which western welfare systems have been based (inter-generational balance, stable and unified family, secure employment, and a limited degree of conflict between family and professional life) depended largely on the traditional role of women. The change in the women's role in the economy has destroyed this balance. In a broader sense, it could be argued that institutions built to accommodate the hierarchical relationship between the State, business and labour in the mass production system are now increasingly unable to cope with the service economy, flexible and feminized production systems, the global perspective and the rise in overall uncertainty. The crisis is even greater in transition economies struggling to combine principles of solidarity with market structures and coming to terms with the basic values of market philosophy.

... and made the modernization of the welfare state and new approach to "women's" issues a major challenge of the 1990 for all countries in the ECE region.

77. The need to modernize the welfare state and update the social contract has recently been illustrated in a series of recommendations by some international organizations including OECD and the Commission of the European Communities.54/ The search for a new "geometry" between the State, the private sector, the community and individual households in defining their responsibilities in the development process have to accommodate the gender

context and the consequences of women's new position in the economy. The change is needed at several levels simultaneously: how formal institutions are organized, how policies are formulated and how people interact with each other. This includes questions of attitudes and social norms which exert an informal control over many aspects of the formal institutions. The rise and religious fundamentalism in the ECE region, as exemplified by the introduction of anti-abortion laws and other restrictive social norms in women's life and activities, clearly demonstrates that such an impact could be very significant.

78. Part of the updating of the welfare state has to be a new approach to and a new level of discussion on "women's" issues. Through their work, in particular in the service sector, women's qualifications and productivity directly affect the country's economic performance. They are thus an important human resource. The improvement of women's education, health and overall situation could have a multiplier effect on society as a whole via their "caring" and "educating" activities as teachers, health and social workers or as mothers. These functions have to be recognized, and eventually upgraded, against human-centred development strategies. This provides yet another argument that reproduction and family responsibilities can no longer be seen as a "free" good (or rather service) and as a "women's" concern. Women's role in a modern growth strategy is thus rapidly evolving. Women are less "social" and more "economic", whilst there is an increasing awareness that in many ways the character of growth has become more "social" and perhaps less "economic" in the traditional sense.

IV. KEY AREAS OF GENDER CONCERN

79. Against the background of development trends, changes in women's position and the slow modernization of institutions and policies, there are four main areas of concern for women: (i) access to and participation in the learning process; (ii) improvement of job security and access to quality jobs; (iii) reconciliation of professional and family responsibilities; and (iv) alleviation of poverty.

A. Access to and participation in the learning process

80. In most countries women are now increasingly defined through work and public institutions. This requires individual development of qualifications and skills. Access to and active participation in the learning process in a broad sense is one of the major factor determining women's role in western and eastern European economies. The learning process encompasses numerous and diversified forms of education - both formal and informal - which has to be continued throughout women's lives. The main objective of this process is a better understanding of the choices available to women in the new economic environment and the acquisition of skills and knowledge to realize individual goals and career options. Women's access to and participation in the learning process is closely connected with the type of welfare system. It cannot be identified only with the formal education that such a system provides but also with the more equitable distribution of family responsibilities at family, community and society level. The decision to participate or not in the learning process is often not a woman's free choice but the result of the constraints imposed on her by her daily schedule at work and within the family. Investing in women's education is worth, perhaps, preferential

treatment, considering their new role in the economy, the current demographic trends and the high returns such investment could bring to society.55/

81. **Directions for action**:

(a) Initiate and encourage women's participation in a process of life-long learning at all levels and in all forms including in particular vocational training, on-the-job training, and the search for innovative forms of training which will fit women's daily schedules;

(b) Eliminate gender bias and traditional thinking on the "appropriate" model of female education and promote women's educational choices which reflect current and future labour market trends;

(c) Equip women with a good level of "generic" skills and knowledge which could be developed further and easily adapted to changing labour market requirements;

(d) Encourage and support women's education and development of skills in information technologies and related subjects;

(e) Create incentives for enterprises to invest in human resources which in some cases, in particular in small enterprises, could favour women.

B. Improvement of job security and access to quality jobs

82. There are three major challenges for women at work, i.e. finding the best strategies to (i) compete for full-time and well paid jobs at the core of the employment structure; (ii) increase the security and remuneration of work under part-time and atypical contracts; and (iii) ensure equal treatment, protection and access to resources in a deregulated small business sector, including self-employment and entrepreneurship. Although all these problems are general labour market issues, they are more relevant to women than men due to the existing employment pattern. Facing the first challenge certainly requires more and better education in line with the changing demand for skills and knowledge. This is discussed above and all directions for action apply also here.

83. The second challenge concerns problems of flexible employment. It is a new and fast growing form of employment, which will probably generate most new jobs in the future. It is also a market segment which is now at the fringe of labour market regulations. It is thus highly insecure as a form of employment, usually provides lower levels of income and interrupts a career track, most often affecting promotion. Solving problems of flexible contracts is complex given the present labour market situation and the fact that accepting many of the disadvantages of part-time employment is at the very heart of women's competitive advantage in this market segment. The strategy could involve actions towards improving the legislative framework for non-standard employment and women's competitive position on this market in order to make atypical contracts a career of choice. This would make it possible to enjoy the flexibility of this type of employment and limit many, or at least some, of the existing disadvantages.

84. **Directions for action:**

(a) Set employment conditions on an equal footing and promote equality of treatment for those in atypical work contracts;

(b) Encourage mobility between non-standard and standard employment;

(c) Support part-time employment as a woman's choice not as her only job opportunity;

(d) Improve representation and advocacy networks for workers under atypical work contracts in collective bargaining.

85. Women are increasingly employed in small firms with less job security. They also seek self-employment often as a response to the lack of job opportunities in the public and private sector resulting from recession and restructuring.

86. **Directions for action:**

(a) Enhance and facilitate women's access to advice on how to become self-employed, and to credit;

(b) Develop an infrastructure supporting the formation and activities of small and medium enterprises.

C. Reconciliation of professional and family life

87. An "adapt and survive" strategy on a contemporary labour market is not possible without a comprehensive approach to the problem of reconciliation of professional and family life. This does not imply that all women have to follow the same career model. There are a variety of ways to combine professional and family life depending on a woman's age, preferences, economic situation, tradition or culture. It could be assumed, however, that the majority of European women, in particular young women, will be professionally active during their lifetime and will also want to have children and so may wish to include some breaks in their career. Policies to tackle this problem have to cut across many labour and social issues and should reflect the change in the traditional thinking on gender roles. Raising a family is also in the interest of the society at large, in particular given the current demographic changes in the region, and both women and men should be involved in this process.

88. **Directions for action**:

(a) Eliminate the concept of the sole breadwinner in the two-adult family as the norm for tax systems and social security policies;

(b) Encourage men to take advantage of the established legislation to increase their share of parenting and family care;

(c) Search for an innovative solution to modify the traditional division for raising and caring for the family between the State, the private sector and the local community in order to create a family-

friendly infrastructure in particular in the area of child care and care for the elderly;

(d) Establish systems that ensure more flexibility for workers in planning their working day and make possible temporary exits from employment without adverse effects on their career;

(e) Promote, through the media and other forms of dissemination, a change in socially accepted norms and a more equal division of responsibilities for work and family between men and women.

D. Feminization of poverty

89. Women face an increased risk of poverty as a result of the current labour market trends and the changes in the composition of the family. Women are more likely to be the "working poor" than men, providing the chief supply of low-level and low-pay jobs and atypical employment. Women are also more likely than men to be a lone parent bringing up children or to be an elderly person living alone. Poverty eradication strategies have often had a limited impact on improving women's situation, since they are primarily concerned with the monetized economy and tend to target men directly as breadwinners. Household resources are often not equally shared within the family which seems to explain why poverty affects women in a different way than men.56/

90. **Directions for action:**

(a) Develop measures to identify groups of women in poverty and studies aimed at establishing patterns of the flows of women in and out of poverty and exclusion situations;

(b) Support changes to the social safety net in order to reach women in poverty directly;

(c) Stop the deterioration of public health programmes and support the improvement of reproductive, maternity and child-care services;

(d) Develop training and education programmes for women working at the lowest end of the labour market.

Conclusions

91. In a longer-term perspective, women's role in the economy will be determined by two major factors: their adaptability to the new requirements of the labour market and global competition and their impact on adjusting the institutional framework and policies in order to make them gender-sensitive.

92. European economies are in the midst of institutional, structural and organizational changes at micro and macro level. The low presence of women in decision-making positions in business and local communities as well as at national and international level seriously limits their impact on the shape of those changes. However, many of these changes touch upon issues vital to women's present and future role in the economy. Women's presence in establishing the new rules of the game at regional and national, community and family level through the articulation of women's interests, or negotiations to make them compatible with the interests of other social groups and in

finalizing the decision making process is crucial in order to successfully integrate women into the modern economy.

93. Gender-responsive development is not just a matter of "women's" interest against their contribution to economic and social activities. Gender-responsive development is an integral part of the concept of sustainable and human-centred development from which the whole society could benefit.

NOTES

1. On the whole, the past debate on women's role in the economy painted either a mostly black or a white picture of women's relationship with development. The optimistic view (integration hypothesis) assumed an automatic opening of new opportunities with the increased integration of women into the labour market whilst the pessimistic view underlined marginalization (Boserup, Ester, 1970: Women's Role in Economic Development, Allen and Unwin, London) and exploitation aspects claiming that women are simply used as a cheap and flexible labour force. The latter approach seems to have gained importance in the late 1980s. (Mitter, Swasti, 1986: Common Fate, Common Bond: Women in Global Economy, London; Moghadam, Valentine M.,1990: Gender, Development, and Policy: Toward Equity and Empowerment, WIDER, Helsinki; Del Alba Acevedo, Luz, 1990: Industralization and Employment: Changes in Patterns of Women's Work in Puerto Rico, World Development, Vol.18, No.2., pp.231-255.

2. Preliminary version of the 1994 World Survey on the Role of Women in Development, report of the Secretary-General (E/CN.6/1994), 3 March 1994. The full report was not yet completed at the time of preparation of the present report. Also: Looking beyond Women: Seeing Gender Concepts in Development Planning, INSTRAW, 1994.

3. The Economic Role of Women in the ECE region: Developments 1975/85, ECE, United Nations, New York, 1985.

4. The ECE economies in mid-1994, Economic Commission for Europe, Geneva, July 1994.

5. This growth was both in absolute terms and in proportion to the labour force. Economic Survey of Europe 1993-1994, p. 43.

6. Economic Survey of Europe 1993-1994, p.44.

7. Ibid, pp.83-89.

8. It has to be mentioned, however, that the level of female unemployment, based on registration, is likely to understate its actual level, at least in some countries, such as the United Kingdom where many women work part-time or under other atypical work contracts with no benefits or entitlements and thus little incentive to register as unemployed. This could also be true for the CIS countries where unemployment benefits are low. Economic Survey of Europe 1993-1994, pp. 44 and 87.

9. Growth prospects are falling for most western market economies below an estimated level of 2.5% necessary to just stand still in a labour market which is expanding by about 0.5% a year, The International Herald Tribune, 10 March 1994.

10. The OECD Observer, No. 183, August/September 1993.

11. Ibid.

12. Social protection in Europe, Commission of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1994, p.33.

13. As indicated by Schmid (1991) in the 1970s and 1980s there was a high correlation between the size of the public sector and the female-intensity in public employment. For further discussion on women's situation in the public sector in developed market economies see: Gunther Schmid "Women and Employment Restructuring: Women in the Public Sector", OECD/GD (91)213.

14. The Economist, 11 June 1994.

15. Baden, Sally, 1993: The Impact of recession and structural adjustment on women's work in developing and developed countries, IDP Women/WP-19, ILO, Geneva.

16. Conroy, Pauline and Niamh Flanagan (1993) Women and Poverty in the European Community: Issues in the Current Debate, Commission of the European Communities, V/42/94-EN.

17. EUROSTAT (1990), Statistiques Rapides. Inegalité et pauvreté en Europe, No. 7, Luxembourg.

18. The Economist, 18 June 1994.

19. Feminization of the labour force has also been a global trend, though the reasons behind it differed according to region and country. Standing, Guy, 1989: "Global Feminization through Flexible Labour", World Development, Vol.17, No.7.

20. "Structural change, employment and unemployment in the market and transition economies", Discussion Papers, vol. 3 (1993), No.1, Economic Commission for Europe, United Nations, New York, Geneva, 1994.

21. Birch, David L., 1987 Job creation in America, New York: Free Press quoted by R. Needleman in "Raising visibility, reducing marginality", paper prepared for the United States Department of Labor, October 1993. p. 46.

22. This is one of the main conclusions of the recent OECD study on job creation, as discussed in The Economist, 11 June 1994.

23. For further discussion see: Susan Christopherson "Women and Employment Restructuring: The Service Sector:, OECD/GD (91) 212.

24. Such contracts cover a wide range of arrangements, such as part-time or on-call work, temporary (fixed-term, casual), self-employment, freelancing, subcontracting, wage work at home, including "telework" based on computer contact with employers. As opposed to full-time workers having one employer, non-standard contracts could include work for several employers simultaneously.

25. As measured by the share of total employment, part-time employment, which is the most popular form of flexible employment and the one with available data, the share of non-standard employment in the labour market is as high as over 33% in the Netherlands and as low as less than 9% of total employment in Austria. OECD Employment Outlook, July 1993.

26. UNCTAD, DTCI, World Investment Report 1994 UNCTAD, Geneva, forthcoming.

27. Bloom D. and Brender,A., 1993: Labour and the emerging world economy. National Bureau of Economic Research Inc., Working Paper Series No.4266, New York.

28. Widgren, Jonas, 1990, "International migration and regional stability", International Affairs, 66 pp.368-71.

29. "Globalization, regionalization and international migration", Report of the working group, International Forum on "Equality for women in the world of work: Challenges for the future", ILO, Geneva, 1-3 June 1994.

30. For further discussion see: Layard. Richard et al., 1992, East-West Migration :The Alternatives, The MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, London; United Nations University Press, Tokyo. The authors argue that Europe should permit immigration of skilled workers from eastern and central Europe.

31. For further discussion on the approaches to environmental policy see: Barde, Jean-Philippe and Opschoor "From Stick to Carrot in the Environment", The OECD Observer: No.186, February/ March 1994.

32. Dunning, John, 1994: "Globalization, Economic Restructuring and Development", The Prebish Lecture, 29 April 1994, UNCTAD, Geneva.

33. North, Douglas; 1991, Institutions, Institutional Change and Economic Performance, Cambridge University Press.

34. Best, Michael (1990), The New Competition: Institutions of Industrial Restructuring, Cambridge, Polity Press. Wade, Robert (1990), Governing the Market, Princeton, Princeton University Press.

35. This is a classical trade-off between equality and efficiency. These problems have recently been discussed by Daly, H., 1986 "Discussion: Equity and Efficiency Problems of Implicit Redistribution" in Distributional Conflicts in Environmental Resource Policy, eds. A.Schaiberg et al., St. Martin Press, New York.

36. Cornia, Giovanni, Jolly, Richard, and Stewart, Frances eds., 1987, Adjustment with a Human Face: A UNICEF Study, (2 vol.), Oxford, Clarendon Press.

37. Singer, H.W.,1993, "International Governance-Intentions and Realities", Development and International Cooperation, Vol.IX, No 16, June 1993.

38. "Equal opportunities for women and men", Social Europe, Commission of the European Communities, No.3, 1991.

39. "Women workers in a changing global environment: Framework for discussion", International Forum on Equality for Women in the World of Work: Challenges for the Future", Geneva, 1-3 June 1994.

40. See: "Women's employment in transnational corporations" Box IV.10 in World Investment Report 1994 op. cit.

41. Silvestri, George and John Lukasiewicz, 1989, "Projections of Occupational Employment 1988-2000", Monthly Labour Review, 112 (11): 42-65.

42. The Economist, 5 March 1994.

43. Core, Françoise, 1994: "Women and the Restructuring of Employment", The OECD Observer No.186 February/March 1994 and The Economist, ibid.

44. For an illustration and further discussion of these trends, see the report on demographic changes prepared for this conference (E/ECE/RW/HLM/3).

45. For further discussion see: Rantalaiho, Lisa and Julkunen, Raija, 1992: The consequences of social and economic changes in Europe for the position of women: analysis, strategies and methods, Conference on Equality between Women and Men in a Changing Europe, Poznan, 31 March-2 April 1992.

46. All data on the changing family pattern in this section are from Sorrentino (1990): The changing family in international perspective, Monthly Labour Review, March 1990, pp. 41-58.

47. Rantalaiho, Lissa and Raija Julkunen (1992), op. cit.

48. For more on the situation of elderly women see: The Situation of Elderly Women, INSTRAW/UNSTAC, 1993.

49. CPA World Directory of Old Age, 1989.

50. OECD, 1994 Women and Structural Change: New Perspectives, Paris.

51. Worswick G.D.N., 1992: The Scope of Macroeconomic Policy to Alleviate Unemployment in Western Europe, Discussion Papers, Vol.2: No.3, Economic Commission for Europe, New York, Geneva.

52. The outcome of a recent G-7 meeting in Naples (Italy) seems to support such a conclusion. The International Herald Tribune, 5 July 1994.

53. This discussion is based on a critical analysis of the existing welfare regimes, as grouped by their four major types, from a gender perspective by Langan, Mary and Ostner Ilona, 1991: "Gender and Welfare: Towards a comparative framework" in Towards a European Welfare State?, Graham Room ed., SAUS, Bristol.

54. See: OECD (1994) op.cit. and Social Protection in Europe, Commission of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1994.

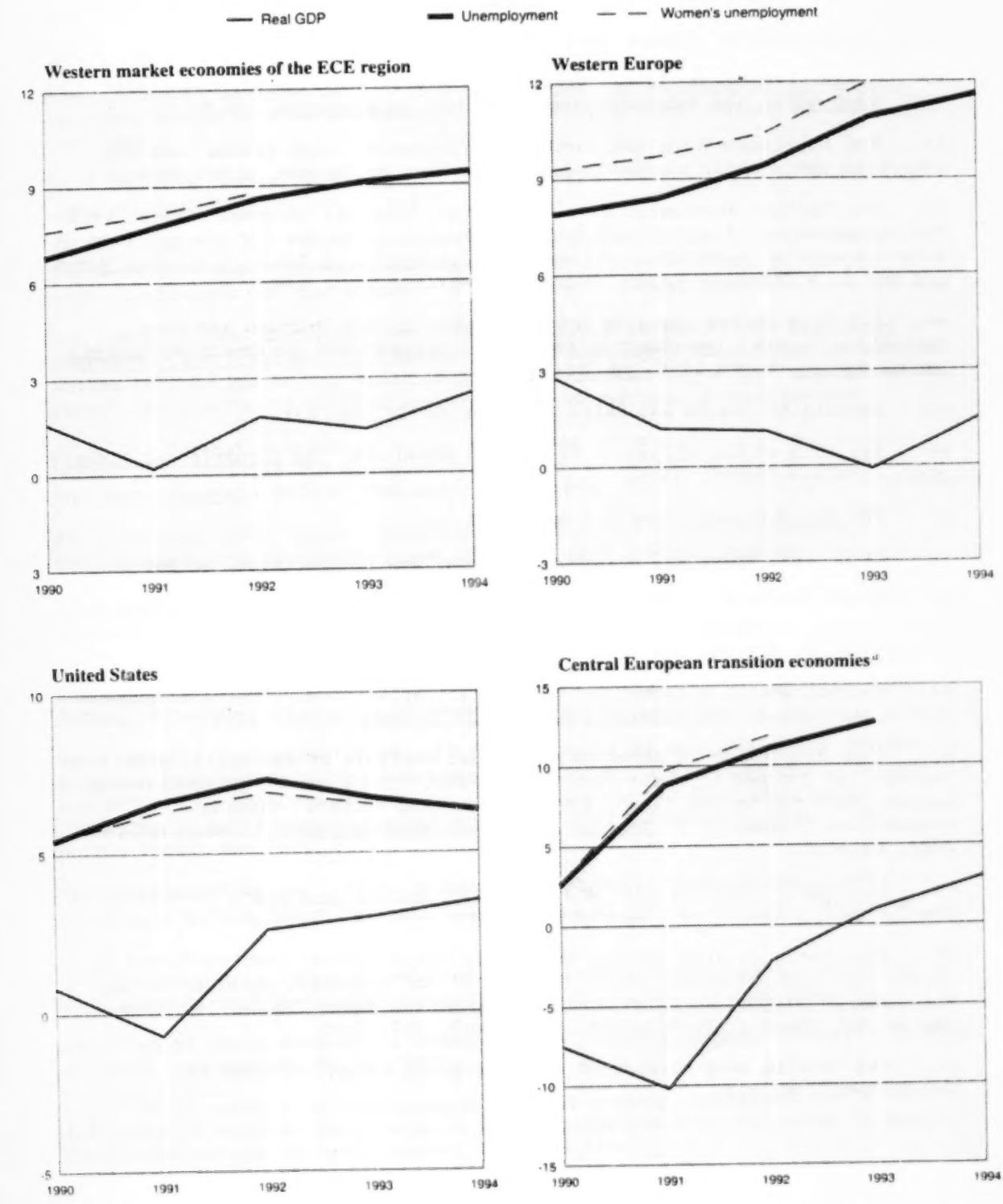
55. The thesis on high returns on women's education has been confirmed by recent empirical studies: Gill, Indermit G. and Khandker, Shahidur R. How Structure of Production Determines the Demand for Human Capital, Working Papers 725, Women in Development, World Bank, July 1991.

56. See: Preliminary version of the 1994 World Survey of Women in Development, op. cit.

Figure I

Growth of real GDP, unemployment rates and women's unemployment rates in the ECE region, 1990-1994

(Per cent)

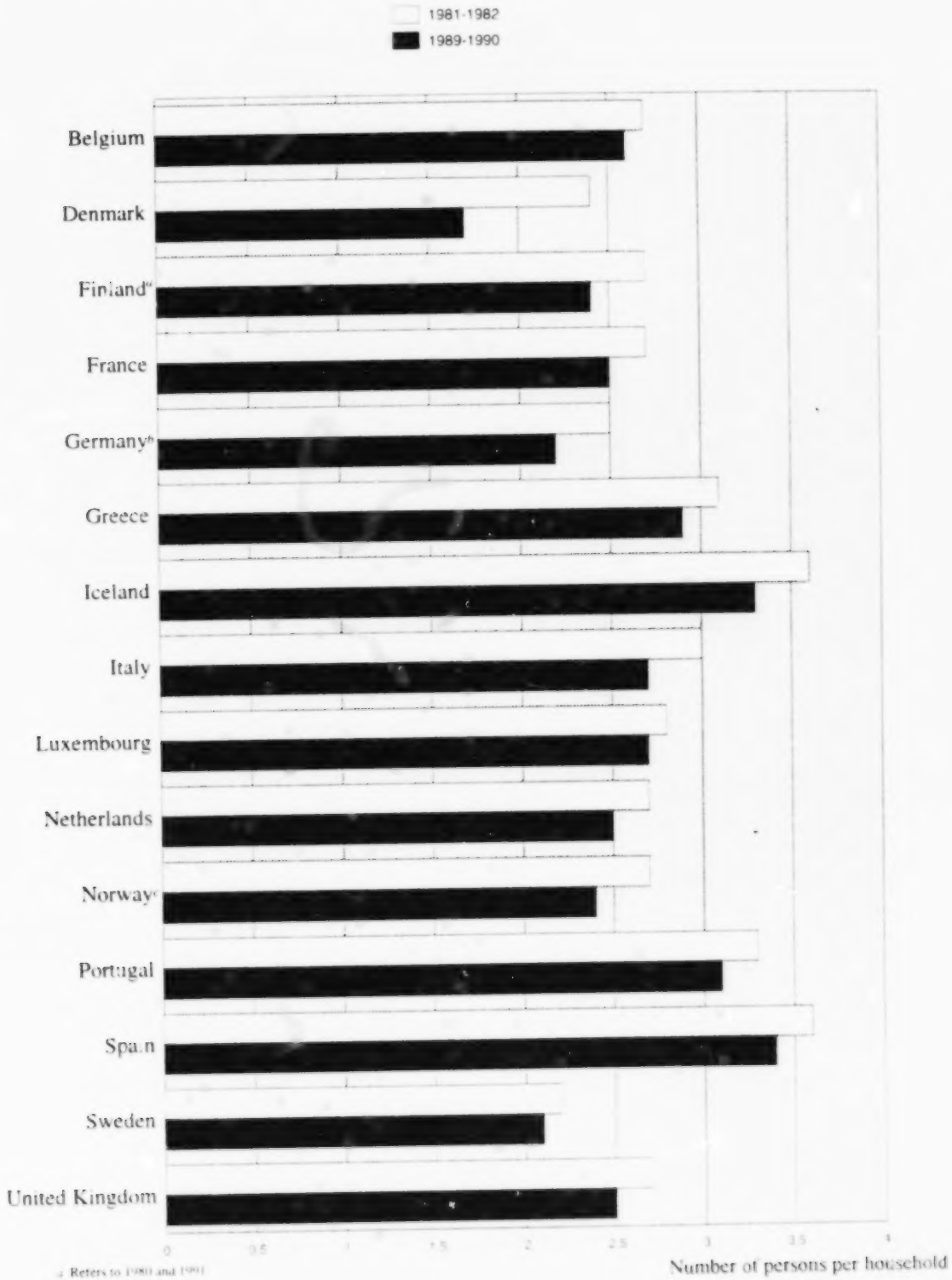


a Includes Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia.

Sources: UN/ECE, *Economic Survey of Europe in 1993-1994*; ILO, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics 1993*; OECD, *Quarterly Labour Force Statistics* No. 1 and No. 4, 1994 and estimates.

Figure II

Changes in the size of an average household in selected ECE countries



a Refers to 1980 and 1991.
b West Germany.
c Refers to 1980 and 1990.

Sources: *On women and men in Sweden* and *EC Facts in figures* (Luxembourg, 1992) Statistics Sweden; *Yearbook of Nordic Statistics* 1992

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Vienna, 17-21 October 1994
Item 6(b) of the provisional agenda

DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS AND STATISTICAL ISSUES

Report by the secretariat

ADDENDUM

ANNEX II

Selected Statistics and indicators on women and men in the region of the ECE

Table
1-1. Population
1-2. Households and families
1-3. Marriage and marital status
2. Urban and rural populations
3. Indicators on health
4. Indicators on education

The tables have been prepared by the Statistical Division (UNSTAT), Department of the Economic and Social Information and Policy Analysis of the United Nations Secretariat, from the Division's Women's Indicators and Statistics Database (Wistat). Technical information on sources and methods used in the compilation of these data may be found in the Wistat Users Guide and Reference Manual 1/ and, in abbreviated form, in UNSTAT's publication The World's Women, 1970-1990--Trends and Statistics.2/ Labour force statistics are not included in the present annex as they are shown separately. They will, however, be included in the complete version 3 (1994) of Wistat, which will be released in spreadsheet format on diskettes and in database format on CD-ROM in the autumn of 1994.

GE.94-23332

Substantial support for Wistat provided by the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) is gratefully acknowledged.

1/ United Nations publication, Sales No. E.92.XVII.11. Copies of version 2 (1991) of Wistat, in spreadsheet files on diskettes, may be ordered from the United Nations Statistical Division, New York.

2/ United Nations publication, Sales No. E.90.XVII.3.

Table 1-1. Population

ECE REGION	(1) Total population (thousands), 1995	(2) Females per 100 males, 1995	(3) Population growth rate (% per yr), 1990-95	(4) % women under 15 years, 1995	(5) % women 60 years and over, 1995	(6) Population 60+ : F per 100 M, 1995	(7) Population 60+ : F per 100 M, 2010
Albania	3390	95	0.84	31	9	117	113
Armenia	3305 r/	104 r/		29 r/	11 r/	146 r/	
Austria	7861	107	0.38	17	24	156	134
Azerbaijan	7021 r/	105 r/		31 r/	10 r/	166 r/	
Belarus	10152 r/	114 r/		21 r/	20 r/	200 r/	
Belgium	10031	104	0.13	17	24	137	131
Bosnia-Herzegovina	4366 t/						
Bulgaria	8887	104	-0.23	18	22	125	131
Canada	28537	103	1.38	20	18	130	128
Croatia	4764 t/						
Cyprus	736	100	0.95	25	15	124	125
Czech Republic	10330 v/	106 t/		20 t/	21 t/	151 t/	
Czechoslovakia (up to 1992)	15876	105	0.27	20	19	149	143
Denmark	5192	102	0.20	16	23	133	125
Estonia	1571	112	-0.15	20	22	185	162
Finland	5046	106	0.26	18	22	153	132
France	57769	105	0.37	19	22	139	132
Georgia	5401 r/	111 r/		23 r/	17 r/	169 r/	
German Dem. Rep. (up to 1990)							
Germany	81264	106	0.44	16	24	159	134
Germany, Fed. Rep. of (up to 1990)							
Greece	10253	103	0.26	17	24	124	128
Hungary	10471	108	-0.16	17	22	152	153
Iceland	268	99	0.99	23	16	111	113
Ireland	3469	100	-0.20	24	17	125	122
Israel	5884	102	4.66	28	15	130	125
Italy	57910	106	0.09	15	24	137	134
Kazakhstan	16464 r/	106 r/		31 r/	12 r/	197 r/	
Kyrgyzstan	4258 r/	105 r/		36 r/	10 r/	176 r/	

Table 1.1 (cont.)

	(1) Total population (thousands), 1995	(2) Females per 100 males, 1995	(3) Population growth rate (% per yr), 1990-95	(4) % women under 15 years, 1995	(5) % women 60 years and over, 1995	(6) Population 60+ : F per 100 M, 1995	(7) Population 60+ : F per 100 M, 2010
Latvia	2650	114	-0.28	20	23	188	166
Liechtenstein	30 u/	105 p/		19 p/	16 p/	142 p/	
Lithuania	3771	111	0.21	21	21	169	157
Luxembourg	386	103	0.69	17	23	150	122
Malta	367	103	0.72	22	17	133	126
Monaco	28 u/	115 n/		11 n/	32 n/	141 n/	
Netherlands	15499	102	0.73	18	20	137	126
Norway	4357	102	0.52	19	23	133	126
Poland	38736	105	0.29	22	18	149	147
Portugal	9884	107	0.03	17	22	139	142
Republic of Moldova	4335 r/	110 r/		26 r/	15 r/	160 r/	
Romania	23505	102	0.26	21	18	128	128
Russian Federation	147022 r/	114 r/		21 r/	20 r/	224 r/	
San Marino	24 u/	104 r/		16 r/	20 r/	124 r/	
Slovakia	5320 v/	104 t/		24 t/	17 t/	142 t/	
Slovenia	1990 v/	106 t/					
Spain	39276	103	0.16	16	22	129	126
Sweden	8773	102	0.48	18	25	129	123
Switzerland	6955	104	0.71	16	23	137	127
The FYR of Macedonia	2066 v/						
Turkey	62032	96	2.05	34	8	108	112
Turkmenistan	3523 r/	103 r/		40 r/	7 r/	160 r/	
Ukraine	51452 r/	117 r/		20 r/	22 r/	205 r/	
United Kingdom	58093	104	0.24	19	23	135	127
United States	263138	105	1.03	21	19	138	132
USSR (up to 1991)	288562	112 r/	0.51	24 r/	18 r/	208 r/	161
Uzbekistan	19810 r/	102 r/		40 r/	8 r/	158 r/	
FR Yugoslavia (Serbia & Montenegro)	10482 v/						
Yugoslavia (up to 1991)	24113	102	0.25	21	18	136	131

Sources: United Nations, The Sex and Age Distribution of the World Populations, The 1992 Revision (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.93.XIII.3), Demographic Yearbook (United Nations publication, various years up to 1991) and Population and Vital Statistics Report (United Nations publication, Series A vol. XLVI no. 1).

Footnotes: n/ 1982. p/ 1987. r/ 1989. t/ 1991. u/ 1992. v/ 1993.

Table 1-2. Households and families

ECE REGION	(1) Average household size, 1990	(2) % household heads female, latest avail. year	(3) Total fertility rate, (TFR) 1990-95	(4) Proportion of TFR to women aged 15-19, 1990-95	(5) Contraceptive use among currently married women of reproductive age, latest avail. (%)
Albania			2.7	3	
Armenia	4.4 g/		2.6 e/	12 e/	22
Austria	2.7 b/	31 n/	1.5	8	71
Azerbaijan	4.5 g/		2.8 e/	5 e/	17
Belarus	2.7 g/		2.0 e/	10 e/	23
Belgium	2.6	21 n/	1.7	3	79 d/
Bosnia-Herzegovina					
Bulgaria	2.9		1.8	20	76 a/
Canada	2.8 c/	25 n/	1.8	7	73 b/
Croatia	3.1		1.7	9	
Cyprus			2.3	7	
Czech Republic	2.5	26	1.9	12	78
Czechoslovakia (up to 1992)	2.8 b/	23 n/	2.0	12	
Denmark	1.7		1.7	3	78
Estonia	3.1	16	2.1	11	
Finland	2.6		1.8	4	80 a/
France	2.5	22 n/	1.8	3	81
Georgia	3.7 g/		2.1 e/	14 e/	17
German Dem. Rep. (up to 1990)	2.4				
Germany	2.3	30	1.5	6	75
Germany, Fed. Rep. of (up to 1990)	2.2				78
Greece	2.9	16 n/	1.5	9	
Hungary	2.7	20 h/	1.8	12	73
Iceland			2.2	7	
Ireland	3.3		2.1	3	
Israel	3.5 b/l/	18 n/	2.9	4	
Italy	2.7	20 f/n/	1.3	4	78 a/
Kazakhstan	3.6 g/		2.8 e/	8 e/	30
Kyrgyzstan	4.3 g/		3.8 e/	6 e/	31

Table 1-2. (cont.)

	(1) Average household size, 1990	(2) % household heads female, latest avail. year	(3) Total fertility rate, (TFR) 1990-95	(4) Proportion of TFR to women aged 15-19, 1990-95	(5) Contraceptive use among currently married women of reproductive age, latest avail. (%)
Latvia	3.1		2.0	11	
Liechtenstein	2.9 b/		1.4 c/	2 c/	
Lithuania	3.2		2.0	9	
Luxembourg	2.7	23 n/	1.6	4	
Malta	3.2		2.1	3	
Monaco	2.2 b/				
Netherlands	2.5		1.7	2	76 d/
Norway	2.7 b/	38 n/	2.0	5	76
Poland	3.1		2.1	8	75 a/h/
Portugal	3.1	18 f/n/	1.5	9	66
Republic of Moldova	2.9 g/		2.5 e/	12 e/	22
Romania			2.1	14	58 a/h/
Russian Federation	2.8 g/		2.0 e/	13 e/	32
San Marino	2.9		1.2 c/	4 c/	
Slovak Republic					74
Slovenia	3.1		1.4	8	
Spain	3.5 b/	16 n/	1.4	5	59
Sweden	2.1	27	2.1	3	78 b/
Switzerland	2.5 b/	25 n/	1.7	1	71 b/
The FYR of Macedonia					
Turkey	5.2		3.5	8	63
Turkmenistan	5.2 g/		4.3 e/	3 e/	20
Ukraine	2.8 g/		1.9 e/	15 e/	23
United Kingdom	2.5 d/	25 m/n/	1.9	9	81 j/
United States	2.6	32	2.1	14	74
USSR (up to 1991)	3.0		2.3	11	28
Uzbekistan	5.2 g/		4.0 e/	5 e/	28
FR Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro)					
Yugoslavia (up to 1991)	3.6 b/		1.9	10	55 a/h/

Table 1-2. (cont.)

Sources:

For (1): United Nations, Demographic Yearbook 1973, 1976, 1982, 1987 and 1990 (United Nations publications, Sales Nos. E/F.74.XIII.1, E/F.77.XIII.1, E/F.83.XIII.1, E/F.88.XIII.1 and E/F.91.XIII.1); national census and survey reports; and national statistical yearbooks.

For (2): United Nations, Demographic Yearbook 1987, tables 30 and 33 (United Nations publication, Sales no. E/F.88.XIII.1); national census and survey reports, national statistical yearbooks and other reports.

For (3) and (4): United Nations, World Population Prospects, The 1992 Revision (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.93.XIII.7) and Demographic Yearbook (United Nations publication, various years up to 1990); national census and vital registration reports.

For (5): United Nations, Levels and Trends of Contraceptive Use as assessed in 1993 (United Nations publication, forthcoming); national statistical yearbooks or abstracts.

Footnotes:

For (1):

b/ Data refer to early 1980s.
c/ Excluding persons living in Indian reserves and settlements.
d/ England and Wales only.
g/ Average size of family, calculated based on members of family living together and persons living alone.
l/ Including data for East Jerusalem and Israeli residents in certain other territories under occupation by Israeli military forces since June 1967.

For (2):

f/ Number of families.
h/ Excluding 124917 where head of household is not determined.
m/ England and Wales only.
n/ Data refer to a year between 1980 and 1984.

For (3) and (4):

c/ Data refers to a year or period within 1985-1990.
e/ 1989. Excluding infants born alive after less than 28 weeks' gestation, of less than 1000 grams in weight and 35 cm in length, who die within 7 days of birth.

For (5):

a/ Data refer to a year between 1975 and 1979.
b/ Data refer to a year between 1980 and 1984.
d/ Including cohabiting women.
h/ Excluding sterilization.
l/ Excluding Northern Ireland

Table 1.3. Marriage and marital status

ECE REGION	(1) Mean age at first marriage, 1990 round of censuses: Female	(2) Mean age at first marriage, 1990 round of censuses: Male	(3) Mean age at first marriage, 1990 round of censuses: Diff.	(4) Percentage 15-19 currently married, latest avail. year: Female	(5) Percentage 15-19 currently married, latest avail. year: Male	(6) Percentage 60+ not currently married, latest avail. year: Female	(7) Percentage 60+ not currently married, latest avail. year: Male
Albania							
Armenia				15.1	2.1	63	27
Austria	23.5 a/	27.0 a/	3.5 a/	4.1 a/	0.5 a/	67 a/	24 a/
Azerbaijan				8.9	1.2	66	15
Belarus				9.9	1.9	64	16
Belgium	22.4 a/	24.8 a/	2.4 a/	5.3 a/	0.7 a/	57 a/	26 a/
Bosnia-Herzegovina							
Bulgaria	21.1	24.9	3.8	16.1	3.1	47	20
Canada	24.3	26.5	2.2	2.0	0.5	51	21
Croatia	23.6	26.6	3	9.1 a/	0.7 a/	64 a/	23 a/
Cyprus	24.2 b/	26.3 b/	2.1 b/	4.5 b/ 2/	0.4 b/ 2/	46 b/ 3/	18 b/ 3/
Czech Republic				7.2	1.5	62	24
Czechoslovakia (up to 1992)	21.7 a/	24.7 a/	3 a/	6.6	1.3	60	21
Denmark	25.6 a/	28.4 a/	2.8 a/	0.9	0.2	57	29
Estonia				7.2	2.1	68	24
Finland	26.1	28.5	2.4	1.1	0.2	63	27
France	24.5 a/	26.4 a/	1.9 a/	0.8	0.1	56	24
Georgia				16.5	3.4	62	16
German Dem. Rep.(up to 1990)	21.7 a/	25.4 a/	3.7 a/	2.2	0.3	64	21
Germany				1.9	0.2	61	20
Germany, Fed. Rep.(up to 1990)	23.6 a/	27.9 a/	4.3 a/	2.2	0.2	61	20
Greece	22.5 a/	27.6 a/	5.1 a/	13.6 a/	1.0 a/	51 a/	15 a/
Hungary	21.0 a/	24.8 a/	3.8 a/	7.5	1.0	63	23
Iceland				0.5	0.1	54	32
Ireland	23.4 a/	24.4 a/	1 a/	0.7	0.1	62	37
Israel	23.5 a/	26.1 a/	2.6 a/	5.9 23/	0.6 23/	53 23/	19 23/
Italy	23.2 a/	27.1 a/	3.9 a/	4.6 a/	0.6 a/	58 a/	20 a/
Kazakhstan				10.9	1.8	66	17
Kyrgyzstan				13.2	1.4	65	15

Table 1-3. (cont.)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Mean age at first marriage, 1990 round of censuses			Percentage 15-19 currently married, latest avail. year		Percentage 60+ not currently married, latest avail. year	
	Female	Male	Diff.	Female	Male	Female	Male
Latvia	22.4	24.0	1.6	8.2	2.7	67	23
Liechtenstein							
Lithuania				7.8 19/	2.6 19/	62	19
Luxembourg	23.1 a/	26.2 a/	3.1 a/	2.7 2/	0.3 2/	60 3/	24 3/
Malta				3.0 2/ 25/	0.4 2/ 25/	63 3/ 25/	34 3/ 25/
Monaco	26.2 a/	28.7 a/	2.5 a/				
Netherlands	23.2 a/	26.2 a/	3 a/	1.3	0.2	54	22
Norway	24.0 a/	26.3 a/	2.3 a/	0.7	0.1	54	27
Poland	23.0	26.2	3.2	4.5 a/	0.4 a/	62 a/	18 a/
Portugal	22.1 a/	24.7 a/	2.6 a/	8.9 a/	1.6 a/	52 a/	19 a/
Republic of Moldova				14.0	2.1	60	19
Romania	21.1 b/	24.9 b/	3.8 b/	14.2 b/ 2/	2.2 b/ 2/	55 b/ 3/	19 b/ 3/
Russian Federation				13.1	5.7	67	17
San Marino							
Slovak Republic							
Slovenia	24.1	28.4	4.3	2.0	0.0		
Spain	23.1 a/	26.0 a/	2.9 a/	3.7	0.9	53	20
Sweden	24.7	27.4	2.7	0.5	0.1	55	31
Switzerland	25.0 a/	27.9 a/	2.9 a/	1.2	0.1	56	23
The FYR of Macedonia							
Turkey	21.5	24.6	3.1	15.6	5.1	51	17
Turkmenistan				6.2	1.4	65	24
Ukraine				14.7	2.6	65	17
United Kingdom	23.1 a/ 4/	25.4 a/ 4/	2.3 a/ 4/	2.5 39/	0.5 39/	56 39/	25 39/
United States	23.3 a/	25.2 a/	1.9 a/	4.6	1.4	48	22
USSR (up to 1991)	21.8	24.2	2.4	12.9 2/ 19/	2.5 2/ 19/	66 3/	17 3/
Uzbekistan				13.3	1.5	64	18
FR Yugoslavia (Serbia & Montenegro)							
Yugoslavia (up to 1991)	22.2 a/	26.1 a/	3.9 a/	10.9 a/	1.6 a/	59 a/	22 a/

Table 1-3. (cont.)

Sources:

For (1) to (3): United Nations, Patterns of First Marriage: Timing and Prevalence (United Nations publication, ST/ESA/SER.R/111, New York, 1990) and Demographic Yearbook Special Issue: Population Ageing and the Situation of Elderly Persons (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.92.XIII.9); and national census and survey reports.

For (4) to (7): Demographic Yearbook, 1987 and 1990 (United Nations publications, Sales Nos. E/F.88.XIII.1 and E/F.91.XIII.1); and national census reports.

Footnotes:

For (1) to (3):
a/ Data refer to a year between 1980 and 1984.
b/ Data refer to a year between 1975 and 1979.
4/ England and Wales only.

For (4) to (7):
a/ Data refer to a year between 1980 and 1984.
b/ Data refer to a year between 1975 and 1979.
2/ Excludes separated.
3/ Includes separated.
19/ Age 16-19.
23/ Including data for East Jerusalem and Israeli residents in certain other territories under occupation by Israeli military forces since June 1967.
25/ Maltese population only.
39/ Excluding Northern Ireland.

Table 2. Urban and rural populations, 1995

	(1) % pop urban, 1995	(2) % pop rural, 1995	(3) Ave. annual change in pop, 1990-95	(4)	(5) Females per 100 males, 1995	(6)
			Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
ECE REGION						
Albania	37	63	1.72	0.34	85	101
Armenia						
Austria	61	39	1.14	-0.73	112	101
Azerbaijan						
Belarus						
Belgium	97	3	0.20	-1.84		
Bosnia-Herzegovina						
Bulgaria	71	29	0.63	-2.17	104	104
Canada	78	22	1.63	0.48	106	94
Croatia						
Cyprus	56	44	2.20	-0.57	100	100
Czech Republic						
Czechoslovakia (up to 1992)	81	19	1.17	-3.10	106	101
Denmark	85	15	0.35	-0.66	105	88
Estonia	73	27	0.20	-1.08		
Finland	60	40	0.45	-0.03	110	99
France	73	27	0.40	0.28	107	100
Georgia						
German Dem. Rep. (up to 1990)						
Germany (from 1990)	86	14	0.72	-1.24	107	98
Germany, Fed. Rep. of (up to 1990)						
Greece	65	35	1.06	-1.16	105	100
Hungary	68	32	0.86	-2.13	110	105
Iceland	92	8	1.25	-1.17	100	83
Ireland	58	42	0.26	-0.82	106	92
Israel	93	7	4.89	2.01	103	94
Italy	71	29	0.55	-0.98		
Kazakhstan						
Kyrgyzstan						
Latvia	73	27	0.17	-1.44		
Liechtenstein	21	79	1.30	-0.13		
Lithuania	72	28	1.15	-2.02		

Table 2. (cont.)

	(1) % pop urban, 1995	(2) % pop rural, 1995	(3) Ave. annual change in pop, 1990-95 Urban	(4) Rural	(5) Females per 100 males, 1995 Urban	(6) Rural
Luxembourg	86	14	1.10	-1.68	104	100
Malta	89	11	1.00	-1.36	103	100
Monaco	100	0	0.35	0.00		
Netherlands	89	11	0.79	0.22	102	98
Norway	77	23	1.05	-1.20	105	93
Poland	64	36	0.95	-0.82	108	100
Portugal	36	64	1.61	-0.82	112	104
Republic of Moldova						
Romania	56	44	1.18	-0.87	102	104
Russian Federation						
San Marino	94	6	0.59	-7.56		
Slovak Republic						
Slovenia						
Spain	81	19	0.73	-2.04	105	96
Sweden	85	15	0.65	-0.47	104	89
Switzerland	64	36	1.48	-0.59	108	97
The FYR of Macedonia						
Turkey	69	31	4.47	-2.43	92	105
Turkmenistan						
Ukraine						
United Kingdom	89	11	0.32	-0.50	105	98
United States	76	24	1.29	0.20	107	98
USSR (up to 1991)	68	32	1.10	-0.70		
Uzbekistan						
FR Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro)						
Yugoslavia (up to 1991)	61	39	1.85	-1.98	104	99

Sources:

For (1) to (4): United Nations, World Urbanization Prospects: The 1992 Revision (United Nations publication, Sales no. E.93.XIII.11).

For (5) and (6): United Nations, "Urban and Rural Areas by Sex and Age: The 1992 Revision" (ESA/WP/120).

Table 3. Indicators on health

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Life expectancy at birth (years), 1990-95			Infant mortality rate, 1990-95	Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 live births), 1990	Age-specific fertility rate (per 1,000), age 15-19, 1990-1995
	Male	Female	Diff.			
ECE REGION						
Albania	71	77	6	23		17
Armenia	67	73	6	19	40	64 a/
Austria	73	79	6	8	7	23
Azerbaijan	66	75	8	26	9	28 a/
Belarus	66	76	10	12	22	40 a/
Belgium	73	79	6	8	3	11
Bosnia-Herzegovina	70	75	5	18 a/		
Bulgaria	69	75	6	14	16	72
Canada	74	81	7	7	5	25
Croatia	67	75	8	12 a/	6	
Cyprus	75	79	4	9		33
Czech Republic			0	16	13	
Czechoslovakia (up to 1992)	69	76	7	10	10	48
Denmark	73	78	6	7	4	11
Estonia	67	76	9	14	31	44
Finland	72	80	8	6	7	14
France	73	81	8	7	9	12
Georgia	69	76	7	20 a/	21	58 a/
German Dem. Rep. (up to 1990)					13	
Germany	73	79	6	7		17
Germany, Fed. Rep. of (up to 1990)					7	
Greece	75	80	5	8	5	27
Hungary	66	74	8	14	18	44
Iceland	76	81	5	5	21	31
Ireland	73	78	6	7	4 5/	15
Israel	75	78	4	9	5 6/	23
Italy	74	80	6	8	6	10
Kazakhstan	64	73	9	26	55	48 a/
Kyrgyzstan	65	73	8	32	63	45 a/

Table 3. (cont.)

	(1) Life expectancy at birth (years), 1990-95		(2) Life expectancy at birth (years), 1990-95		(3) Life expectancy at birth (years), 1990-95		(4)	(5)	(6)
	Male		Female		Diff.		Infant mortality rate, 1990-95	Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 live births), 1990	Age-specific fertility rate (per 1,000), age 15-19, 1990-1995
Latvia	66		76		9		10	24	43
Liechtenstein	66	b/	73	b/	7	b/	4	a/	
Lithuania	68		77		9		10	23	35
Luxembourg	72		79		7		8	22	13
Malta	74		78		5		9	26 b/	12
Monaco									
Netherlands	74		81		6		7	7	6
Norway	74		80		7		8	6	20
Poland	67		76		9		15	12	31
Portugal	71		78		7		12	9	27
Republic of Moldova	64		72		8		18	44	57 a/
Romania	67		73		6		23	83	57
Russian Federation	62		74		12		18	52	53 a/
San Marino	73	b/	79	b/	6	b/	18	a/ 10 b/	
Slovak Republic	67		75		8		12		
Slovenia	70		74		4		8	5	
Spain	75		80		6		7	5	15
Sweden	75		81		6		6	8	13
Switzerland	75		81		6		7	7	5
The FYR of Macedonia							35		
Turkey	65		70		5		56	150	56
Turkmenistan	62		69		7		44	42	22 a/
Ukraine	64		74		10		14	32	56 a/
United Kingdom	74		79		5		7	7 12/	34
United States	73		79		7		8	7	58
USSR (up to 1991)	66		75		9		21	41	48
Uzbekistan	66		72		6		37	34	42 a/
FR Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro)							17		
Yugoslavia (up to 1991)	69		75		6		23	14	38

Table 3. (cont.)

Sources:

For (1) to (3): United Nations, World Population Prospects, The 1992 Revision (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.93.XIII.7), Population and Vital Statistics Report (United Nations publication, Series A, vol. XLVI no. 1) and Demographic Yearbook (United Nations publication, various years up to 1991).

For (4): World Health Organization, FHE Database - Maternal Mortality (as at Dec. 1993) and Health for All Global Indicators Database (1991); United Nations, Demographic Yearbook (United Nations publication, various years up to 1991); and national vital statistics and health records.

For (5): United Nations, Age Patterns of Fertility 1990-1995 database (The 1992 Revision) and Demographic Yearbook (United Nations publication, various years up to 1991); national registration data; national census and survey publications; and national statistical yearbooks.

Footnotes:

For (1) to (3):
a/ Data refer to a year between 1985 and 1989.
b/ Data refer to a year between 1980 and 1984.

For (4):
b/ Data refer to a year between 1980 and 1984.
5/ Deaths registered within one year of occurrence.
6/ Including data for East Jerusalem and Israeli residents in certain other territories under occupation by Israeli military forces since June 1967.
12/ England and Wales only.

For (5):
a/ 1989. Excluding infants born alive after less than 28 weeks' gestation, of less than 1000 grams in weight and 35 cm in length, who die within 7 days of birth.

Table 4. Indicators on education

	(1) Combined first/second level gross enrolment ratio, 1990		(3) Third level enrolment per 100,000 inhabitants, 1990		(5) Ratio of female to male enrolment (x100), 1990		(7) Ratio of third-level female students to male students, 1990			(10) Ratio of female teachers to male teachers, 1990		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Second level	Third level	All fields	Nat. sci., eng'g., agric.4/	Medical sciences	First level	Second level	Universities & equiv. institutions
ECE REGION												
Albania	90	94	723	639	81	107 1/	108	79	89	122	67	39 1/
Armenia												
Austria	91	89	2370	3090	99	80 40/	82	33	127	456	127	28 2/
Azerbaijan												
Belarus						111	108	45	138			
Belgium	103	103	2586	2930	96	78 17/	79	41	113	355	113	11
Bosnia-Herzegovina					99	112						
Bulgaria	88	89	2129	2054	99	106 1/	104	79	186	335	156	61 1/
Canada	106	106	5698	4540	96	128	127	35	285	223	117	22 2/
Croatia					114	104				669	170	53
Cyprus	98 1/	97 1/	959 1/	911 1/	97 3/	106	108	32	355	150	85 23/	72 3/
Czech Republic						123				1150		41
Czechoslovakia (up to 1992)	91	89	1044	1395	102	79	79	37	150	456	82	43
Denmark	104	102	2478	2455	96	104	104	37	456	150		
Estonia										4900	335	65
Finland	111	102	3376	3283	114	109 9/	108	32	456			
France	105	101	3141	2906	102	113	113	49	144	245	133	39
Georgia												
German Dem. Rep. (up to 1990)	87	89	2679	2687	91	110 1/	108	39	567	900	117	39 1/
Germany (from 1990)					96							
Germany, Fed. Rep. of (up to 1990)	103	106	2197	3471	93	68	67	23	170	400	69	25
Greece	99	100	2128	2274	90	97	100	39	170	100	117	41
Hungary	89	88	943	1000	96	101 1/	100	25	150	525	108	43 1/
Iceland			2435	1876	91	125	144	33	285			
Ireland	101	97	2097	2516	104	87 9/	85	41	113	317		
Israel	92	88	2520	2790	104	92 35/	96	41	223	456	170 35/	47 a/
Italy	84	83	2354	2747	96	91 44/	92	47	49	900	156	
Kazakhstan												
Kyrgyzstan												

Table 4. (cont.)

	(1) Combined first/second level gross enrolment ratio, 1990		(3) Third level enrolment per 100,000 inhabitants, 1990		(5) Ratio of female to male enrolment (x100), 1990		(7) Ratio of third-level female students to male students, 1990			(10) Ratio of female teachers to male teachers, 1990		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Second level	Third level	All fields	Nat. sci., eng'g., agric.4/	Medical sciences	First level	Second level	Universities & equiv. institutions
Latvia										4900	72	
Liechtenstein												
Lithuania												
Luxembourg	82	80	165	331	97	52 a/				104		
Malta	93	97	393	578	88	73	79	23	85	376	52	12
Monaco					95					170		
Netherlands	110	110	2569	3330	93	80 35/	82	20	194	178	39	
Norway	100	99	3546	3218	99	113	113	39	456	170		27
Poland	94	93	1553	1277	100	127 1/	127	43	194	456	122	56 1/
Portugal	86	88	2027	1728	97	94 a/	127	54	223	355	194	45
Republic of Moldova												
Romania	94	88	658	731	93	92 1/	92	72	133	270	104	41 1/
Russian Federation					128	108				488 24/		
San Marino					97					614	163 a/	
Slovak Republic						112				156		
Slovenia					101	125				567	127	34
Spain	111	106	2975	2987	102	100	104	39	186	186	92	41
Sweden	99	97	2423	2136	100	116	117	33	270	223		
Switzerland	95	98	1480	2785	105	53	54	15	104			12
The FYR of Macedonia					94	107						
Turkey	72	89	929	1735	60	51	52	37	75	75	64	47
Turkmenistan												
Ukraine						98	117	69	144			
United Kingdom	95	93	1918	2214	98	91	92	30	300	355	113 g/	23
United States	99	99	5771	5411	103	120				567	117	37
USSR (up to 1991)	93	87	1697	1957	107 g/	96 1/	104	56	150	300		
Uzbekistan												
FR Yugoslavia (Serbia & Montenegro)					95	110				285	122	46
Yugoslavia (up to 1991)	84	85	1374	1374	93	102	104	56	163	257	113	43

Table 4. (cont.)

Sources:
For (1) to (4): United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Statistical Yearbook (Paris, various years up to 1993).

For (5), (6), (10), (11) and (12): United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Statistical Yearbook (Paris, various years up to 1993); and national statistical yearbooks.

For (7) to (9): Calculated from United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, World Education Report 1993, table 9 (Paris, 1993).

Footnotes:

For (1) to (4):
UNESCO (International Standard Classification for Education) definitions.
1/ Not including Turkish enrolment and population.

For (5):
g/ Data refer to general secondary education only.
3/ Not including Turkish schools.

For (6):
a/ Data refer to a year between 1980 and 1984.
1/ Including evening and correspondence courses.
9/ Data refer to full-time students only.
17/ Data refer to universities and equivalent degree-granting institutions only.
35/ Data exclude Open university.
40/ Including multiple counting of students enrolled in more than one field of study.
44/ Data on female students exclude post-graduate level.

For (8):
4/ Includes natural sciences; engineering; mathematics and computer sciences; architecture and town planning; transport and communications; trade, craft and industrial programmes; agriculture, forestry and fisheries.

For (11):
a/ Data refer to 1980.
g/ Data refer to general secondary education only.
23/ Not including Turkish schools.
35/ Data include intermediate classes attached to primary schools.

For (10):
24/ Data include general education at the second level or part thereof.

For (12):
a/ Data refer to a year between 1980 and 1984.
1/ Including evening and correspondence courses.
2/ Data refer to full-time teachers only.
3/ Data refer to all third level institutions.